DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 256 129 EC 172 530

AUTHOR	Yoneshige, Dora
TITLE	Advocacy Skills: Applied to Integration and Access of Special Education Children in Full Learning Environments. A Ho'okoho Module.
INSTITUTION	Hawaii Univ., Honolulu. Dept. of Special Education.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Special Education (ED), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	83
CONTRACT	300-80-0746
NOTE	68p.; A part of the Hawaii Integration Project. For related information, see EC 172 522-532. Portions of the handouts may be marginally legible.
PUB TYPE	Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Advocacy; *Child Advocacy; Competence; *Disabilities; Elementary Secondary Education; Legal Aid; *Teacher Role; Teacher Workshops
IDENTIFIERS	*Hawaii Integration Project

ABSTRACT

The module applies advocacy skill instruction to the integration of severely handicapped students. The instructor's material is presented for four competencies (understanding the concept of advocacy, factors essential for effective advocating, developing effective advocacy skills, and recognizing elements crucial to implementing an integration program for special education students into the total school environment) and their related activities and materials. Objectives of each competency are presented along with suggestions for discussion. Handout materials include reprints on advocacy, sample progress reports, and monitoring checklists. (CL)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

✓ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Doris Y. Zukemura

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

ED256129

Advocacy Skills: Applied to Integration and Access of Special Education Children in Full Learning Environments

A Ho'okoho Module

Written by:

Dora Yoneshige

for

Hawaii Integration Project
Copyright (c) 1983

Department of Special Education
College of Education
University of Hawaii

EC175530

This document was produced under Contract #300-80-0746 from the United States Department of Education, Office of Special Education. The opinions expressed in this module do not necessarily reflect the position or policy of the United States Department of Education and no official endorsement by the United States Department of Education should be inferred.

ADVOCACY SKILLS

Teaching Procedures

I. Introduction and Greetings - prior to presentation

A. Instructor introduces self and occupation.

B. Allow each participant to introduce self and describe their involvement with the handicapped.

C. Briefly explain the general purposes and content of the module.

1. Use handout #1 for this activity.

2. Discuss the competencies and the nature of information contained in module.

II. COMPETENCY 1 - UNDERSTANDING THE CONCEPT OF ADVOCACY

A. Explain the objectives for this competency using handout #1.

B. Objective 1

1. Begin a discussion on the concept of advocacy (not necessarily on issues dealing with the handicapped) by eliciting responses from participants.

2. Questions which may be used to encourage responses may include:

a. How many of you have ever advocated?

b. If so, what did you advocate? To whom? With what degree of success?

c. How many of you would like to advocate?

d. What would you like to advocate?

3. Discuss the definition of advocacy by eliciting responses from participants. Write the responses on the chalkboard.

4. According to Webster's definition, advocacy means: "THE ACT OF PLEADING THE CAUSE OF ANOTHER; THE ACT OF DEFENDING OR MAINTAINING A CAUSE OR PROPOSAL."

a. Use transparency #1 for the definition.

5. Stress that there is a difference between advocacy and aggression.

a. Aggression is defined as an offensive action or procedure. It implies a disposition to dominate often in disregard of other's rights or in determined and energetic pursuit of one's end.

b. Advocacy is more similar to assertiveness. Assertiveness means to state or declare positively. It implies stating one's opinions confidently without need for proof or regard for evidence, but in a manner which shows respect for other's feelings and opinions also. Advocacy can be viewed as a form of "friendly persuasion."

C. Objective 2

1. Begin a discussion on the various dimensions of advocacy.

2. Use transparency #2 and explain the model in the following manner:

a. Self Dimension - Advocacy begins with the self. An individual develops a commitment to a cause, principle or issue. The nature and degree of the commitment will depend on the differing roles that an individual may assume. The individual in the self dimension may, for example, be a parent of a handicapped child, a special education teacher, regular education teacher, school administrator, lawyer, or any individual who may have an interest and concern with the welfare of the handicapped. The commitment within this dimension may be advocating for appropriate services and programs and equal educational opportunities for the handicapped. What other issues can you think of?

b. School Dimension - The self in the school environment will encounter individuals with differing roles and responsibilities. The issue or cause which will be advocated will determine the specific individual within the school dimension who will be affected. Basically, advocating for the integration of handicapped students into the total school environment would be the focus. The school dimension will include personnel and procedures of the librarian, custodial staff, counselor, cafeteria staff, regular education staff, secretarial staff, administrative staff, regular and special education students and parents of these students. In addition, District and State education personnel and policies can be included within this dimension. It is also important to be aware of the hiearchical structure of the school dimension as it relates to responsibilities and authority in decision making as well as appropriate channels of communication. (Refer to handout #2 to explain hiearchy of the Department of Education, State of Hawaii.)

c. Community Dimension - The self can also advocate within the community dimension. Providing opportunities for the handicapped to participate in patterns and conditions of daily life that are as close as possible to those of the mainstream of society, is the focus of advocacy within this dimension. For this to occur, advocacy must reach outside of the school and into the community. Again, the cause which is being advocated will determine the specific individual(s) in the community who will be impacted. The community dimension may include the legislature, local churches, recreation programs, service organizations (Easter Seal Society, YMCA/YWCA, etc.) and private businesses. What kinds of causes can be advocated within this dimension?

d. National Dimension - Advocacy at this level may comprise of the self supporting professional organizations serving the handicapped such as CEC (Council for Exceptional Children), ARC (Association for Retarded Citizens), or membership and involvement in the Special Olympics and National Wheelchair Games.

D. Objective 3

1. Use transparency #3 to explain "advocacy dilemma."
2. The term is defined as: A CONFLICT THAT ARISES WHEN A PROFESSIONAL MUST DECIDE WHETHER TO ACTIVELY DEFEND A CHILD'S RIGHTS WHEN DOING SO WOULD CONTRADICT THE STATED OR IMPLIED DIRECTIONS OF THE PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYING AGENCY."
3. Ask the participants: "Have any of you ever been in a position where your beliefs and values contradicted the school's or district's policies and practices?" Encourage participants to discuss their personal experiences.
4. Break into small groups and present problem solving activity using handout #3.
   a. Allow approximately 15 minutes for discussion within small groups.
   b. Discuss each problem solving case in large group.
5. Explain that in situations such as these, it may take longer for changes to occur, but an individual needs to consider various factors and set priorities. Advocating often times may involve taking risks, developing patience and perseveration.

E. Objective 4

1. Direct the participants to handout #4, ATHI Scale.
2. Explain the scale in the following manner:
   "This scale is an informal way of determining how you perceive handicapped individuals. Results will not be discussed."
3. Allow participants about 10 minutes to complete the scale. Score together. (Refer to scoring procedures in the instructor's materials section of the module.)
4. Explain the results in the following manner:
   "The higher your score, the more you perceive handicapped persons as being similar to you. Therefore, it is assumed that you would more likely advocate on issues for the handicapped that are similar to issues you would advocate for yourself. The average score is 80."

III. COMPETENCY II - FACTORS ESSENTIAL FOR EFFECTIVE ADVOCATING

A. Explain the objectives for this competency using handout #1.

B. Objective 1

1. The "Who" factor - use transparency #4

a. Explain that there are individuals who, because of their roles, position, influence, skill, knowledge, informal power or similar commitments, can assist with facilitating changes.

b. Refer to handout #5 and explain the role of the individuals in the various social groups in the following manner:

1). The innovators - They tend to be intelligent and risk-taking; they travel a lot, they read a lot, they depend on outside sources of information, and they are usually very receptive to influence by outside change agents. They also tend to be marginal to their home communities. They may be viewed as "odd balls" or mavericks, and they do not usually have a great deal of direct power or influence. Hence, they can be both an asset and a liability to the advocate. These people will have commitment to a new idea and are willing to stand up and be counted even though they may be risking the scorn and ridicule of others, but if they have stood up too often for lost causes they may not be an effective ally.

2). The resisters - Many social systems also contain some members who assume the active role of resisters or critics of innovation. They are the defenders of the system the way it is, the self-appointed guardians of moral, ethical and legal standards. Although these people are "conservative" in the strictly logical sense, they may wear all kinds of labels from "radical" and "liberal" to "reactionary."

3). The leaders - Many studies of how groups accept innovations have singled out one very important social role which they have identified as the "opinion leader." Opinion leaders are held in high esteem by the great majority of their fellow men. Some act as legitimators, making the majority feel that it is okay to try something out without having the axe fall. Others serve as facilitators, approving and rewarding the innovators and encouraging others to follow their example, getting clearance, providing funds and release time, and generally making it easier to be an innovator.

4). The Silent Majority - This group probably comprise the largest number of individuals in a social system. They probably do not develop any strong feelings about particular issues but may silently observe and weigh the pros and cons of proposed changes. Members of this group tend to accept the majority's point of view and may be heavily influenced by the leaders of the group.

c. Identifying the four types of individuals and allying the appropriate ones may facilitate changes and promote an understanding of what is being advocated.

C. Objective 2

1. The "What " factor - use transparency #5.
2. Explain and discuss the importance of and commitment to what is being advocated.
   a. Commitment is defined as a "pledge."
   b. Refer back to "self dimension" and stress that commitment to a particular cause, ideal, concept, philosophy, etc., begins with the self and the role that the individual in the self dimension assumes.
   c. Commitment may also encompass the nature and degree of sincerity towards issues being advocated.
   d. Draw the following diagram on the chalkboard and explain this way:

COMMITMENT

Least Sincere — Most Sincere

"A commitment at the most sincere end of the scale implies a total belief in the issues being advocated. Probably nothing or no one could influence the individual's way of thinking. (Ask participants for examples.) One example could be: A parent of a handicapped child is committed to the belief that her child would benefit from integration with regular education students. The parent disagrees with the professionals that the child is not ready for integration. The parent bases her belief on the commitment to provide a 'normal' environment as possible for her child. If integration is not initiated, this parent would most likely have the issue resolved in an impartial hearing. On the other hand, commitment at the 'least sincere' end of the scale may imply that although an individual may possess certain beliefs, the commitment toward those beliefs is not necessarily strong. The individual then may be easily swayed by others who may have conflicting beliefs." (Ask for examples).

One example could be: There may be individuals who advocate that Special Olympics is necessary for handicapped persons who otherwise may not have any opportunities for recreation or physical fitness. On the other hand, there may be individuals who disagree with this type of segregated activity. An individual who is at the "least sincere" end of the commitment scale may accept any of the two arguments.

D. Objective 3

1. The "When/Where" factor - use transparency #6.
2. Explain that there may be situations throughout the school day or year which may be the most beneficial time for advocating and facilitating changes.
3. Divide the chalkboard in half, label one side "Where/When."
4. Elicit responses from participants on their perceptions of appropriate places and times for advocating and why.
5. Some situations and appropriate times may include:
   a. informal social school gatherings
   b. during lunch break in teacher's lounge
   c. faculty meetings for more formal advocating
   d. late fall after school year begins

E. Objective 4

1. The "How" factor - use transparency #7
2. Discuss various strategies that an individual in the school environment can use to develop positive school climate and facilitate changes.
3. Use the other half of the chalkboard and label "How"; record responses.
4. Some strategies may include:
   a. active participation in school related matters, membership in committees, assisting with field trips, school programs and other activities, participation in faculty social functions.
   b. developing a parent and student volunteer program made up of parents of regular education as well as special education students.
   c. utilizing public relations techniques and developing reciprocal relationships between self and other staff members in school. Included may be sharing materials and ideas, combining classes for cooperative activities, assuming responsibility for playground and lunchroom supervision, etc.
   d. provide information formally (inservice during faculty meetings) or informally (talk story) about special education students in general,

PI 94-142, Rule 49, mainstreaming, LRE, etc.

e. if mainstreaming is already being implemented in school, lend support to various staff members by offering direct assistance when possible and making suggestions and recommendations at other times.

f. make contacts with community organizations and businesses, especially near school area.

F. Objective 5

1. The "Sincerity" factor - use transparency #8.
2. Discuss the importance of being sincere in actions and words.

G. Small group problem solving activity

1. Refer participants to handout #6.
2. Allow approximately 20 minutes for groups to discuss and resolve problems.
3. Conduct a verbal exchange in large group on the problems.

MAY BE A GOOD TIME FOR BREAK!

IV. COMPETENCY #111 - DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE ADVOCACY SKILLS

A. Explain the objectives for this competency using handout #1.

B. Objective 1

1. Using chalkboard, elicit responses from participants of what they perceive to be advocacy skills.
2. Present transparency #9 and discuss list of skills, pointing out those already mentioned and others. Leave on for the next activity.
3. Advocacy skills may include:
   a. ability to gather relevant information, organize it into effective record keeping system;
   b. develop effective human relationship skills such as assertiveness and sensitivity;
   c. develop effective decision making skills;
   d. develop an awareness of the power dimensions within the school;
   e. develop lobbying skills with selected change agents;
   f. develop effective oral/written communication skills.

C. Objective 2

1. Describe and discuss the technique of "Networking."
2. Refer to instructor's materials in the folder and present the mini-lecture.

D. Objective 3

1. Present handout #7, break into small groups if appropriate and describe the activity allowing about 15 minutes to the participants.
2. Explain that participants may use list of skills on transparency.
3. Have each group report at the end of their group activity.

V. COMPETENCY IV - TO RECOGNIZE ELEMENTS CRUCIAL TO IMPLEMENTING AN INTEGRATION PROGRAM FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENTS INTO THE TOTAL SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT.

A. Explain the objectives for this competency using handout #1.

B. Begin a discussion on various elements which need to be considered for a successful integration program.

1. Allow participants about 10 minutes to jot down their ideas and discuss results.

C. Objective 1

1. Present transparency #10 - Support Element.
2. Includes:
   a. administrators (school, district, state)
   b. Staff (regular education teachers, support personnel, service personnel)
   c. parents (regular and special education)
   d. students (regular and special education)
3. Explain that support needs to be reciprocal occuring before and during the integration process.
4. Activities or procedures which may promote support may include:
   a. aides from special education classes are assigned to assist the regular education teachers when handicapped students attend various activities in the regular classes;
   b. regular teachers are given minimal amount of paperwork responsibilities for handicapped students. Invitations to attend IEP meetings are extended, but attendance is voluntary. Regular education teachers, however, need to be cognizant of the needs of the students and the goals and objectives of integration;
   c. regular and special education teachers may share many educational resources including instructional materials as well as aides to run dittos and perform other tasks;
   d. regular and special education students may attend field trips together and participate cooperatively in school-wide functions;
   e. special education teachers are readily available to consult, suggest and recommend to regular education teachers on various educational approaches and offer remedial assistance to individual students;
   f. arrange for parents to visit regular education classes prior to integration;
   g. special education teachers can make presentations at parent group meetings and activities;

h. invite parents of regular and special education students to volunteer in classrooms or on integrated field trips;

i. describe and promote integration efforts in school newsletters, posters around campus, and annual reports to SAC (School Advisory Council).

D. Objective 2

1. Present transparency #11 - Logistic Element.
2. Includes:
   a. location of the special education class within the context of the total school plant;
   b. coordinating school's master schedule with special education program's schedule;
   c. considering timelines for pre-planning activities and implementation.
3. Ask participants why logistical elements are important.

E. Objective 3

1. Present transparency #12 - Program Element.
2. Includes:
   a. selecting appropriate activities or programs when integration can be most successful;
   b. assessing the students for readiness and developing IEP goals;
   c. involving regular education students in integration efforts.
3. Ask participants for suggestions on three items.

F. Objective 4

1. Present transparency #13 - Communication Element.
2. Includes:
   a. being well informed and knowledgeable about concept of LRE (least restrictive environment) and being able to communicate it effectively to colleagues and lay persons;
   b. developing a continuous written/oral communication system between self and other personnel in school which may be formal/informal.
3. Refer to handouts #8,9,10,11,12 for samples of written communication forms.

VI. SUMMARY

A. Briefly review the four competencies. Allow participants to ask questions.

B. Refer participants to handout #13 and explain the non-contact hour assignments.

ALL PAU!

TRANSPARENCIES

NO.	TITLE
1	Definition of Advocacy
2	Dimensions of Advocacy - a Model
3	Advocacy Dilemma
4	Who Factor - Change Agents
5	What Factor - Commitment
6	When/Where Factor - Situations
7	How Factor - Strategies
8	Sincerity Factor
9	Advocacy Skills
10	Support Element
11	Logistical Element
12	Program Element
13	Communication Element

HANDOUTS

1	Ho'okoho Advocacy Module - Outline
2	Organizational Structure of Department of Education, State of Hawaii
3	Advocacy Dilemma problem solving
4	ATHI Scale
5	Change Agents
6	Recognizing Factors Essential for Effective Advocating - Problems of Who, What, When, Where, How.
7	Using Advocacy Skills
8-12	Communication Forms (to be included)

INSTRUCTOR'S MATERIAL

SCORING PROCEDURE FOR ATHI SCALE

1. Except for statements #2, 5, 6, 11, and 12 change every plus (+) sign to a minus (-) sign, and every minus (-) sign to a plus (+) sign. The plus or minus sign for the numbers you gave statements #2, 5, 6, 11 and 12 are not to be changed.
2. Now add up all the plus numbers and record the total on the line labeled "(+) total". (Refer to the example below.)
3. Now add up all the minus (-) numbers and record the total on the line labeled "(-) total."
4. Now record the sub-total. If the "(+) total" is larger, subtract the "(-) total" from it and record the number as a plus (+) number. If the "(-) total" is larger, subtract the "(+) total" from it and record the number as a minus (-) number.
5. Now record the total by adding or subtracting (according to the sign) the sub-total from +60.

EXAMPLE:

11 (+) total	35 (+) total
- 35 (-) total	- 11 (-) total
- 24 subtotal	+ 24 subtotal
+ 60	+ 60
36 Total	84 Total

Ho'okoho Advocacy Module - Overview

COMPETENCIES/CONCEPTS	ACTIVITIES/MATERIALS	METHOD	TIME
1. Introduction and Greetings	a. Instructor introduces self and occupation.	Lrg. grp.	10-15 min.
	b. Survey of participants.		
	c. Explanation of purpose of module. (Handout #1)		
2. Competency #1 Understanding concept of advocacy	a. Explain objectives for this competency. (Handout #1)	Lrg. grp	50-60 min.
	b. Definition of advocacy **(Transparency #1)**	Lrg. grp.	
	c. Dimensions of advocacy (Transparency #2)	Lrg. grp.	
	d. Dilemmas of advocacy (Transparency #3)	Lrg. grp.	
	e. Problem solving for advocacy dilemma (Handout #3)	Sml. grp.	
	f. ATHI Scale (Handout #4)	Individual	
3. Competency #2 Factors essential for effective advocating	a. Explain objectives for this competency. (Handout #1)	Lrg. grp.	50-60 min.
	b. Discuss "Who" factor - Change Agents (Transparency #4)	Lrg. grp.	
	c. Discuss "What" factor- Commitment (Transparency #5)	Lrg. grp.	
	d. Discuss "When/Where" factors - (Transparency #6)	Lrg. grp.	
	e. Discuss "How" factor - Strategies (Transparency #7)	Lrg. grp.	
	f. Discuss "Sincerity" factor (Transparency #8)	Lrg. grp.	
	g. Problem Solving for identifying factors (Handout #6)	Sml. grp.	
4. **Break Time**			20 min
5. Competency #3 Developing effective advocacy skills	a. Explain objectives for this competency. (Handout #1)	Lrg. grp.	50-60 min
	b. Discuss various skills (Transparency #9)	Lrg. grp.	
	c. Discuss technique of "Networking"	Lrg. grp.	
	d. Problem Solving - Using Advocacy Skills	Sml. grp.	

INSTRUCTOR'S MATERIAL

COMPETENCIES/CONCEPTS	ACTIVITIES/MATERIALS	METHOD	TIME
6. Competency #4 Elements crucial to	a. Explain objectives for this competency. (Handout #1)	Lrg. grp.	50-60 mi
	b. Discuss "Support Element" (Transparency #10)	Lrg. grp.	
	c. Discuss "Logistic Element" (Transparency #11)	Lrg. grp.	
	d. Discuss "Program Element" (Transparency #12)	Lrg. grp.	
	e. Discuss "Communication Element" (Transparency #13)	Lrg. grp.	
	f. Discuss communication forms (Handouts 8-12)	Lrg. grp.	
7. Summary			

NON-CONTACT HOURS ACTIVITY

ACTIVITY I

Develop a plan to:

a. Change the location of your special education class to a more accessible and integrated area on the school campus.

OR

b. Change the master schedule of a grade level of your choice or your own schedule so that coordination exists to facilitate integration of your special education students. Be sure to select regular education classes which are age appropriate for your special education students.

Include in your plan:

a. pre-planning strategies
b. time-lines
c. individuals who will be involved
d. implementation

Possible 30 points

ACTIVITY II

Develop a one year plan to integrate two of your special education students into a regular education class or other regular education activities. (If all of your students are already integrated, develop a plan to increase integration). The goal will be that at the end of the year, the special education students will be integrated with regular education students for at least half of each school day. Remember, include in your plan the elements that have been identified as being crucial to initiating an integration program.

Possible 70 points

TAKEN FROM: Educational Perspectives, 13:3, October, 1974.

ADVOCACY: AN EMERGING ROLE FOR SPECIAL EDUCATORS

Deborah Robyn Priddy

Advocacy is a new social role growing out of the civil and human rights movements. It reflects the recognition that many people lack the power to participate effectively in decisions that affect their lives. Devalued by society because of economic, physical, or cultural differences, they cannot effect those social changes that must occur in order to have full access to essential goods and services. The advocate's role is to insure those with devalued status a chance to advance or defend their own interests by providing that measure of power, wealth, and/or expertise needed to bring about institutional change (Guskin & Ross, 1971). Traditionally a lawyer's role, advocacy is emerging as a new role for special educators.

Advocacy and Children with Special Needs

Historically, exclusion has been a societal response towards people who differ from the norm. Those identified as abnormal in some observable way have been regarded as less than human; they have been stigmatized, segregated, and assigned a devalued role (Fargo, 1968). Their worth and thus their needs have been minimized.

According to Edelman (1974), many children with special educational needs have been excluded from school because appropriate education programs are not provided. Within existing programs, many children from cultures other than the dominant one have been victims of inadequate testing procedures, resulting in misclassification and misplacement. Some exceptional children are placed in separate and unequal facilities with few supplies and inadequate support services. Not only are they physically isolated from others but they are also socially ostracized by the rest of the school (Hall, 1970). In short, those children most lacking in adaptive skills are forced to cope with conditions that would not be tolerated for more able children.

Special educators are confronting the reality that they cannot teach and children cannot learn under these conditions. Teachers are beginning to speak out on behalf of their students. In the process they are finding themselves in the role of advocates, seeking to provide that measure of expertise and political pressure that will bring about institutional change. Along with this realization, two developments in education have contributed to teachers' growing awareness of themselves as advocates for the children they serve: the movements toward teacher accountability and the philosophy of normalization.

Teacher accountability dictates that teacher performance be evaluated in terms of student growth. Rather than assessing the behavior of teachers, the emphasis is on the performance of their students. While some regard this mode of evaluation as a threat to the tenure system, most teachers recognize student progress as their critical objective. The institution's failure to provide them with the means to achieve this objective becomes their focus of concern. Advocacy, then, becomes doubly important. Securing improved education programs for their students enhances not only the students' growth, but strengthens the teacher's own professional position.

The philosophy of normalization focuses on acceptance of and provision for individuals with special needs. In public schools the most obvious manifestation of normalization is mainstreaming, the process of integrating children from self-contained special education classes into regular school programs. Implicit in the concept of mainstreaming is provision for the continuity of special education services to meet individual differences. Delivery services need to be restructured to desegregate children with special needs while allowing special education teachers to serve them within the regular school programs.

With desegregation of special education, these students and their special teachers face the problem of gaining that acceptance so necessary to full integration. It is increasingly apparent that if mainstreaming is to succeed, attitudes and practices of regular educators and their pupils will have to change from rejection and exclusion

COPY AVAILABLE

to acceptance and inclusion. The role of special educators in effecting these changes will be a critical one. Teacher advocacy, then, is necessary to insure the success of special educators assigned to regular school programs as well as the success of their students.

Critical Issues in the Teacher Advocate Role

Despite the impetus provided by teacher accountability and normalization, special educators face several problems in assuming an advocate role. Among these problems are class and role conflict.

It is difficult to advocate on behalf of students whom one does not understand, accept, or feel at ease with because of differences in value systems and behavior. Unfortunately, many teachers face a conflict between their own social class orientation and that of some of their students, particularly in rural or inner-city situations. This is especially true in special education where many of the children are poor and the teachers are often from middle-class homes. There is little in most teachers' life experiences or formal education that prepares them to bridge the discontinuities between poverty life styles and the demands of the middle-class school. Advocacy is difficult enough when the issues are expressive of one's own value system; it is increasingly difficult when teachers must first insure that they do not require students to embrace the teachers' own criteria for "appropriate" values and behavior.

Teacher advocates also face the problem of role conflict. The advocate's chief responsibility is to his or her client; responsibility to the establishment as well constitutes a conflict of interest (Guskin & Ross, 1971). To further student interests, advocates must make demands on the institutions that have purchased their services and, in a sense, their loyalties. Institutions are conservative by nature with institutional procedures designed to guarantee survival. When confronted with change, the institution may seek to preserve itself and avoid risks. It often does this by ridding itself of abrasive elements. The teacher advocate can be construed as an abrasive element and must be aware of this risk.

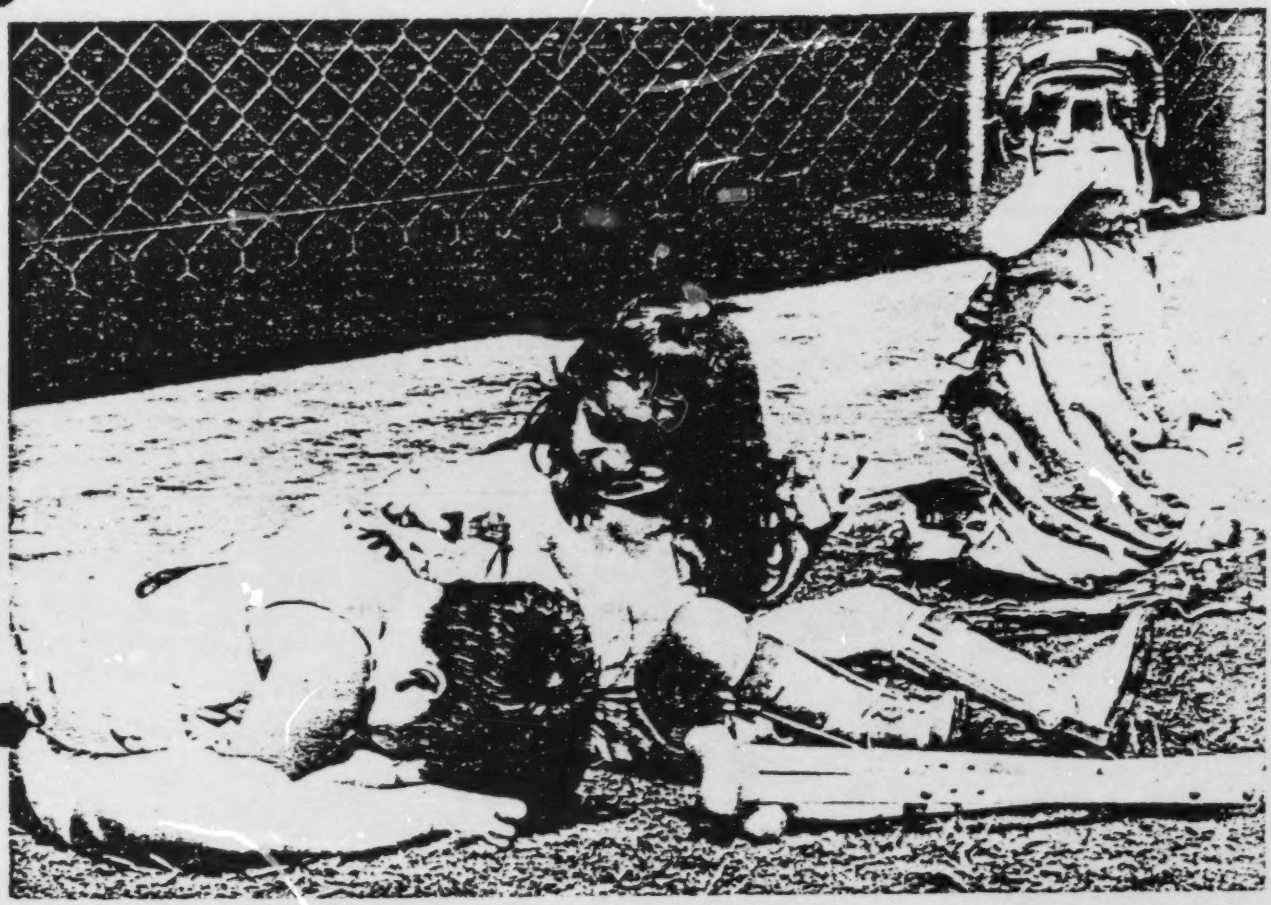
The reality of role conflict raises the critical issue of teacher responsibility. When institutional requirements and children's needs conflict, teachers are forced to examine their own definitions of loyalty and responsibility as professionals. Teachers must secure their positions within the institution without compromising their integrity; they must develop styles and strategies of advocacy that lead to effective change without jeopardizing their situations within the system that insures that they will be heard by the community.

Impact upon Training of Special Educators

The emerging role of teacher advocate has exciting implications for teacher training programs. Specific training for advocacy could result in a rapid increase in advocacy activities. Advocacy training would also redefine the roles and responsibilities of teacher trainers, extending their range of concerns to include social change. More important, it necessitates that they, too, become advocates, using whatever prestige they enjoy to guarantee human and legal rights for children with special needs.

In developing advocacy training programs, teacher trainers must specify those competencies needed by teacher advocates. Sensitivity to value systems, knowledge of recent developments, and relevant strategies and skills are important areas to be considered. First, sensitivity to value systems will enable special educators to advocate more easily and effectively for clients whose value systems differ from their own; emphasis on the value of human differences may increase the esteem in which the students themselves are held.

Secondly, knowledge of recent developments in allied advocacy movements is a requisite for credibility as well as decision making. Acquiring information about and cooperating with other advocacy organizations should be an integral part of any course of study. Sources of advocacy information are legal, parent, and citizen advocates at national, state, and local levels. Legal advocates have been active in fighting the exclusion of children with special needs from school (MacMillan v. Board of Education, 1969) and the practice of discriminatory testing procedures (Diana v. State Board of Education, 1970). Parent advocates have long been working to obtain educational services that meet the needs of their children. One such group, the California Association for the Neurologically Handicapped Child, was largely responsible for legislation that created the program for children with educational handicaps in California. Activities of citizen advocates have ranged from serving on school advisory committees to functioning as "big brothers" for children whose needs are special.



Finally, developing strategies for change and the skills to implement them are critical to advocacy and cannot be accomplished without community involvement. Internships in advocacy are one way of allowing students to translate theory into practice and to develop as advocates. At the local level, assignments might include advocating on behalf of a specific child, serving on an advisory board, enlisting support of local legislatures, and working with teachers' organizations. While local assignments are most convenient, placements at national and state levels should be explored; it is there that most political decisions and appropriations of funds are made.

The necessity for cooperative efforts is paramount. While isolated instances of advocacy cannot effect those social changes requisite to ensuring the human and legal rights of students with special needs, consistent efforts can and will make a difference. The strength inherent in organization must be utilized. Teacher trainers can accelerate this movement toward social change by developing programs that emphasize advocacy training, and encouraging special educators to become agents of change. Teachers and trainers alike must become participants in the decisions that affect their lives as well as the lives of children with special needs.

References

American Public Health Association—1973. *Family Planning Digest.* 1974, *3*(2), 7.

An interview with Marian Wright Edelman. *Harvard Educational Review.* 1974, *44*, 53-73.

Diana v. State Board of Education, C-70 37 RFP, District Court for Northern California (February, 1970).

Fargo, G. Humanizing the curriculum for the handicapped. *Impact.* 1968, *3*, 23-26.

[illegible]kin, A.E., & Ross, R. Advocacy and democracy: The long [illegible]. *American Journal of Orthopsychiatry.* 1971, *41*, 43-57.

Hall, [illegible]. The politics of special education. In *Inequality in Education.* Harvard Center for Law and Education, March 16, 1970, Nos. 3 & 4, 17-22.

MacMillan v. Board of Education, Civil Action No. 3229 U.S. D.C.S.D.N.Y. (July, 1969).

Moynihan, D. P. *Maximum feasible misunderstanding.* New York: Free Press, 1969.

Worsfold, V. A philosophical justification. *Harvard Educational Review.* 1974, *44*, 142-157.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

HANDOUT #1

Ho'okoho Advocacy Module - Outline

PROPOSED TITLE: Advocacy Skills: Applied to Integration and Access of Special Education Children in Full Learning Environment

Competency 1: TO DEVELOP AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE CONCEPT OF ADVOCACY

Objectives:
1. Define the term "advocacy"
2. Describe the various dimensions of advocacy
3. Describe and resolve dilemmas posed by advocacy
4. Discover own potentials for becoming an advocate

Competency 2: TO RECOGNIZE FACTORS ESSENTIAL FOR EFFECTIVE ADVOCATING PRIMARILY IN THE SCHOOL DIMENSION

Objectives:
1. Who Factor - Discuss and identify various individuals in school who can act as "change agents" to aid in issue that is being advocated
2. What Factor - Discuss importance of and commitment to "what" is being advocated
3. When/Where Factors - Discuss and describe various situations throughout the school day which can be the most beneficial time for advocating, also during school year
4. How Factor - Describe and discuss strategies which can be used for developing a positive school climate in which individuals may become receptive to changes
5. Sincerity Factor - Discuss the need for sincerity in actions and words

Competency 3: TO DEVELOP EFFECTIVE ADVOCACY SKILLS

Objectives:
1. Describe and discuss the various skills necessary for effective advocating. These may include the ability to:
   a. gather relevant information, organize them into effective record keeping system
   b. develop effective human relationship skills such as assertiveness and sensitivity
   c. develop effective decision making skills
   d. develop awareness of power dimensions within the school
   e. develop lobbying skills with selected change agents
   f. develop effective oral/written communication skills
2. Describe and discuss technique of "Networking" as a method of facilitating commitment and changes in others
3. Apply skills of advocating in situations where equal educational opportunities of handicapped students is challenged

Competency 4: TO RECOGNIZE ELEMENTS CRUCIAL TO INITIATING AN INTEGRATION PROGRAM FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENTS INTO TOTAL SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT

Objectives:
1. Describe and discuss Support Element
2. Describe and discuss Logistic Element
3. Describe and discuss Program Element
4. Describe and discuss Communication Element

HANDOUT #2

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

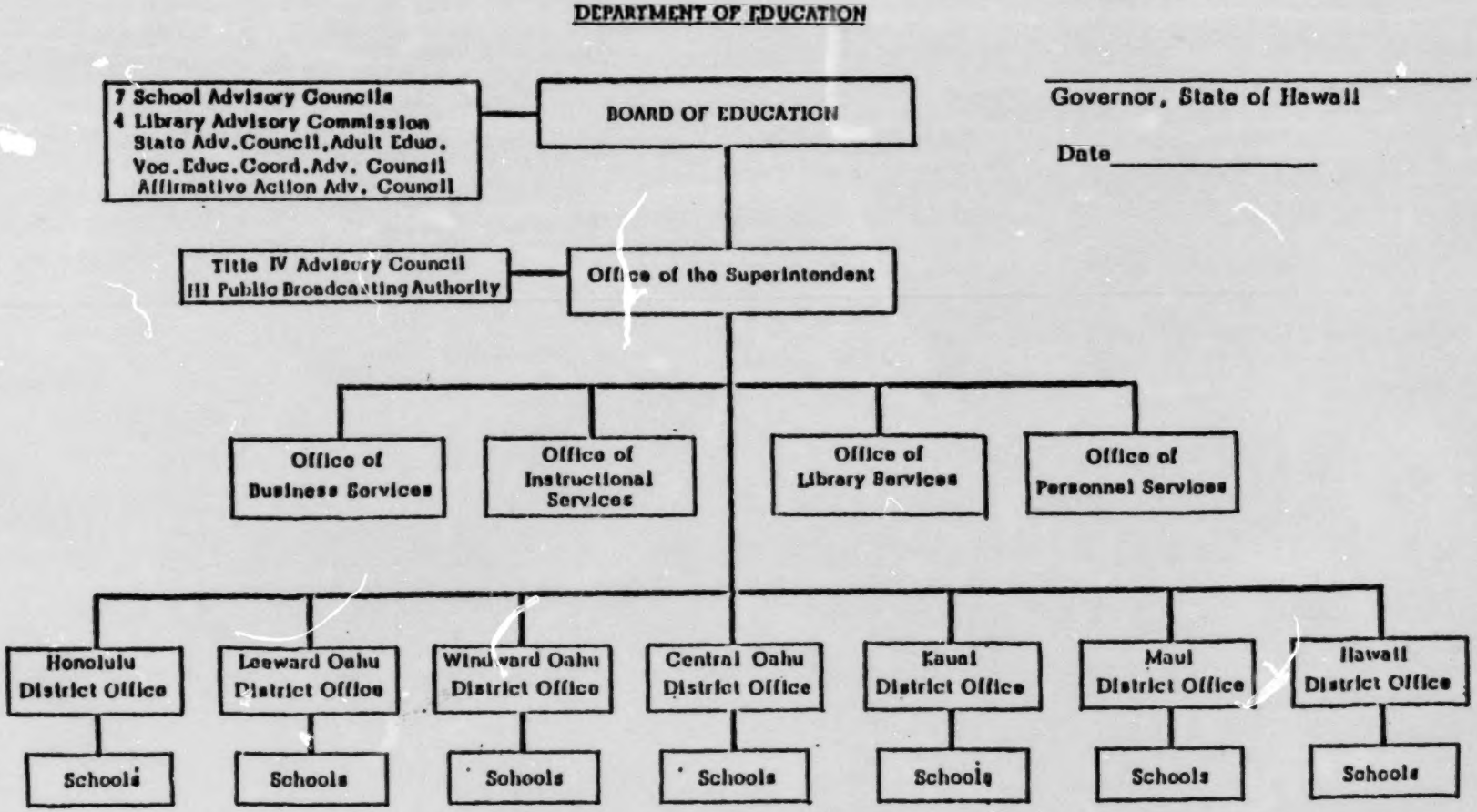
PLAN OF ORGANIZATION

APPROVED:

_____

Governor, State of Hawaii

Date_____



BEST COPY AVAILABLE

21

HANDOUT #2

HANDOUT # 3

ADVOCACY DILEMMA PROBLEMS

PROBLEM #1

You are a special education teacher who instructs learning disabled students. One of the children in your class you feel needs physical therapy, adapted physical education and speech therapy services. In preparing for an IEP conference, you have specified these services on your preparatory notes for the child's IEP. Although you are aware that there is a shortage of personnel to deliver services in adapted physical education and physical therapy, you as a professional nonetheless feel that these services are necessary for the child. You therefore approach your principal to discuss the situation. His advice is that you only mention speech therapy services and omit the other two from the IEP, adding that there was no need to unnecessarily disturb the concerned parents. You do not wish to be labeled as a trouble-maker nor to be the cause of an awkward due process hearing. How would you resolve this dilemma?

PROBLEM #2

You are the counselor at a school that has special education classes. You have just completed a meeting with the concerned parents of a regular education child who appears to be failing in school. After doing an informal evaluation on the child, and agreeing with the screening committee's recommendations at the school, you obtain parental permission on the necessary forms and submit a request for a formal evaluation to be conducted by District personnel. After three months, you finally receive the results of the evaluation. To your dismay, however, the child is found ineligible to receive special education services. After discussing the results of the evaluation with the regular education teacher, both of you disagree with the findings. You approach the principal and relate your concern, adding that the parents of this child will almost assuredly disagree with the findings also. But the principal does not want to "rock the boat" with the District Superintendent and would rather try to appease the regular education teacher and the parents in other ways. As a professional who is truly commited to serving children and who has a "gut feeling" that this child should receive special education services, what would you do?

PROBLEM #3

You are a special education teacher in a public school. You have a very good friend who has a handicapped child in Mrs. Jones special education class in your school. Your friend has relayed to you that she is dissatisfied with the special education services that her child is receiving, especially in Mrs. Jones' class. Your friend has decided to submit a request for a hearing based on the fact that she claims that her child has made minimal gains over the past year. You are very much aware of what goes on in Mrs. Jones' class, and although you disagree with many of the teaching techniques, materials, etc., you feel you need to maintain a good working relationship with Mrs. Jones. Your friend, however, has asked you to testify on behalf of her and her child. As the special education teacher caught up in this dilemma, what would you do?

HANDOUT # 4

ATHI SCALE

BY

Al Lazar

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3; or -1, -2, -3; depending on how you feel in each case.

+3	I agree very much	-1	I disagree a little
+2	I agree pretty much	-2	I disagree pretty much
+1	I agree a little	-3	I disagree very much

___1. Parents of handicapped children should be less strict than other parents.

___2. Handicapped persons are just as intelligent as non-handicapped ones.

___3. Handicapped people are usually easier to get along with than other people.

___4. Most handicapped people feel sorry for themselves.

___5. Handicapped people are the same as anyone else.

___6. There shouldn't be special schools for handicapped children.

___7. It would be best for handicapped persons to live and work in special communities.

___8. It is up to the government to take care of handicapped persons.

___9. Most handicapped people worry a great deal.

___10. Handicapped people should not be expected to meet the same standards as nonhandicapped.

___11. Handicapped people are as happy as non-handicapped ones.

___12. Severely handicapped people are no harder to get along with than those with minor handicaps.

___13. It is almost impossible for a handicapped person to lead a normal life.

___14. You should not expect too much from handicapped people.

___15. Handicapped people tend to keep to themselves much of the time.

___16. Handicapped people are more easily upset than non-handicapped people.

___17. Handicapped persons cannot have a normal social life.

___18. Most handicapped people feel that they are not as good as other people.

___19. You have to be careful of what you say when you are with handicapped people.

___20. Handicapped people are often grouchy.

THANK YOU!

HANDOUT #5

SOCIAL GROUPS

1. The Innovators

The innovators tend to be intelligent and risk-taking; they travel a lot, they read a lot, they depend on outside sources of information, and they are usually very receptive to influence by outside change agents. They also tend to be marginal to their home communities. They may be viewed as "odd balls" or mavericks, and they do not usually have a great deal of direct power or influence. Hence, they can be both an asset and a liability to the change agent. These people will have commitment to a new idea and are willing to stand up and be counted even though they may be risking the scorn and ridicule of others, but if they have stood up too often for lost causes they may not be an effective ally.

2. The Resisters

Many social systems also contain some members who assume the active role of resisters or critics of innovation. They are the defenders of the system the way it is, the self-appointed guardians or moral, ethical, and legal standards. Although these people are "conservative" in a strictly logical sense, they may wear all kinds of labels from "radical" and "liberal" to "reactionary".

3. The Leaders

Many studies of how groups accept innovation have singled out one very important social role which they have identified as the "opinion leader". Opinion leaders are found in any community and they are the key to the growth of any movement. Study after study has shown that there are certain influential people who are held in high esteem by the great majority of their fellow men. They are usually not the first people to try out new ideas because they need to maintain their standing with their followers. The opinion leaders listen to both the innovators and the resisters so that they can better size up a developing situation. They watch the resister to test the social risks of adopting the idea. Indeed, in many cases they are eager to observe these changes because their continuance in power rests upon their ability to judge innovations. They want to become the champions of the innovation whose time has come. In other words, they must be able to adopt new ideas at the point at which those new ideas become popularly feasible.

4. The Silent Majority

This group comprise the largest number of individuals in a social group. They probably do not develop any strong feelings about particular issues, but may silently weigh the pros and cons of proposed changes. Members of this group tend to accept the majority's point of view and may be heavily influenced by the leader of the group.

HANDOUT # 6

RECOGNIZING FACTORS ESSENTIAL FOR EFFECTIVE ADVOCATING - PROBLEMS

PROBLEM #1

To have one of your special education students develop vocational skills, you would like to initiate a vocational education program using the cafeteria facilities. Develop a mini plan using the various strategies discussed, including pre-planning activities. Include in your plan:

1. Who would be involved
2. What your goals will be in the program for the child
3. When and where would be the most appropriate time and place to initiate such a plan
4. What strategies would you utilize?

PROBLEM #2

You would like to have your third grade special education students to participate in the May Day program not as a separate group, but together with the students in the appropriate grade level. Develop a mini plan using the various strategies discussed including the pre-planning activities. Include in your plan:

1. Who would be involved
2. What your goals will be for the children
3. When and where would be most appropriate to initiate such a plan
4. How or what strategies you would utilize.

HANDOUT # 7

USING ADVOCACY SKILLS - PROBLEMS

PROBLEM #1

You are a special education teacher who has a number of your students mainstreamed into regular education classes. During recess break, Mrs. Oshiro, who is noticeably upset, comes storming into your room complaining about one of the special education children in her class.

> "I want you to take Charlie back! I cannot provide for his needs. He cannot seem to work independently and if I am unable to help him immediately, he starts messing around with the other children and disrupts the class! With 30 other children in my class, I cannot manage with Charlie there. How many children did you say you had?"

What would be your immediate verbal response?
What advocacy skills would you need to use and why?

PROBLEM #2

You are a special education teacher who has a child in class you feel is ready for integration. At the IEP meeting, however, the parents of the child are very hesitant. You are nonetheless determined to integrate the child and finally **succeed** in obtaining the parents permission to initiate a "trial" integration program for a semester. The parents have also requested that a report be available on the status of their child's integration by the end of the trial semester.
What advocacy skills would you need to use and why?

PROBLEM #3

For the next upcoming school year, you would like to move your special education class to a building which is closer to the cafeteria, playground area and the majority of the regular education classes. After discussing your plan with the principal, his response is "If you can convince one of the regular education teachers to vacate her room, then you may move into that room."
What advocacy skills would you need to use and why?

HANDOUT #8

REGULAR EDUCATION PROGRESS REPORT

QUARTER_____

STUDENT'S NAME_____ GRADE____ PERIOD____

TEACHER'S NAME_____ COURSE_____RM_____

RETURN TO_____RM_____

Please check all applicable areas: Week Ending:____

	GOOD (G)	AVG. (A)	POOR (P)	COMMENTS
1. ATTENDS CLASS ON TIME				
2. BRINGS PAPER AND PENCIL TO CLASS DAILY				
3. FOLLOWS CLASS RULES				
4. ASKS FOR HELP WHEN DIFFICULTY ARISES				
5. EFFORT IN COMPLETING ASSINGMENTS				
6. CLASS ASSIGNMENTS COMPLETED ON TIME				
7. HOMEWORK ASSIGNMENTS COMPLETED ON TIME				
8. FOLLOWS DIRECTIONS (ORAL AND WRITTEN)				
9. PEER RELATIONSHIPS				

	YES	NO	
1. FIGHTS WITH STUDENT (S)			
2. DISRUPTS OTHERS			
3. TALKS EXCESSIVELY			
4. INSUBORDINATE			
5. DAYDREAMS			

APPROXIMATE GRADE FOR CLASS (CIRCLE ONE) A B C D F

OTHER COMMENTS (OPTIONAL)

_____

_____

_____

MONITORING CHECKLIST

HANDOUT-#9

STUDENT:_____

REGULAR ED. TEACHER:_____

SPEC. ED. TEACHER:_____

1. Curriculum areas covered within the regular class, the approximate level, and materials or program.

Area	Materials	Grade Level
Reading	_____	_____
Math	_____	_____
Spelling	_____	_____
Science	_____	_____
Social Studies	_____	_____
PE/Health	_____	_____
Others	_____	_____
	_____	_____
	_____	_____

2. What are the curriculum areas that the child is not being provided because of his time assigned to the SLD class?

3. To assist you in working with this child in the regular class, what specific curriculum areas can the special ed class teacher emphasis at this time?

CHECKLIST FOR MONITORING SPECIAL EDUCATION STUDENTS IN REGULAR EDUCATION CLASSES

HANDOUT #10

STUDENT: _____ GRADE: _____ DATES: _____ to _____

REGULAR EDUCATION TEACHER: _____ RM.NO.: _____

SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER: _____ RM.NO.: _____

SUBJECT: _____

_____

	MONDAY		TUESDAY		WEDNESDAY		THURSDAY		FRIDAY	
	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO	YES	NO
1. Student read and understood material(s), activity(s), demonstration(s), etc.										
2. Student completed class assignment(s) adequately.										
3. Student completed homework assignment(s) adequately.										
4. Student performed adequately.										
5. Student displayed independent study habits.										

COMMENTS:

REGULAR EDUCATION MONITORING FORM
Social Growth Profile

HANDOUT #11

STUDENT'S NAME _____ GRADE ____ SUBJECT _____ QUARTER _____

TEACHER'S NAME _____ ROOM ____ DATES OF MONITORING: From _____ To _____

Seldom = 0-25% of the time
Sometimes = 26-50% of the time
Often = 51-75% of the time
Usually = 76-100% of the time

		USUALLY	OFTEN	SOMETIMES	SELDOM
CLASSROOM CONFORMITY: Acceptance of routines and procedures	Attends school and assigned classes.				
	Brings required materials to class.				
	Follows teacher directions.				
	Studies without disrupting class activities.				
	Follows established classroom routines.				
TASK ORIENTATION: Persistence with task through mastery	Works with conventional classroom supervision.				
	Works in an organized manner.				
	Completes tasks in appropriate amount of time.				
	Completes tasks with acceptable quality.				
SENSE OF SELF-WORTH: Presence of self-confidence, security, self-esteem	Shows pride in accomplishments.				
	Accepts praise and encouragement.				
	Protects own rights in a constructive manner.				
SELF-RESPONSIBILITY: Acceptance of responsibility for success and failure	Shows awareness of own strengths and weaknesses.				
	Accepts responsibility for behavior.				
	Accepts consequences of behavior.				
EMOTIONAL CONTROL: Appropriate reaction to tension, frustration and change	Copes appropriately with frustration.				
	Expresses feelings in a controlled manner.				
	Reacts appropriately to constructive criticism.				
PROBLEM-SOLVING: Active efforts to cope with and solve problems	Accurately describes own problem situations.				
	Describes appropriate behavior alternatives.				
	Chooses appropriate behavior alternatives.				
ACCEPTANCE OF AUTHORITY: Cooperative attitude toward those representing authority	Accepts directions from staff.				
	Communicates with staff in a respectful manner.				
	Complies with school rules and regulations.				
RESPECT FOR OTHERS: Acceptance of desirable social standards	Is courteous and encourages like behavior in others.				
	Shows regard for needs and feelings of others.				
	Treats school property with regard.				
SOCIAL SKILLS: Acceptance of group standards and ability to work with peers	Is accepted by peers.				
	Shows poise in dealing with peers.				
	Works cooperatively with peers.				
	Seeks appropriate attention from peers.				

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

GRADE CHECK REPORT

HANDOUT #12

Student _____ Date _____

Period & room	Subject/Teacher (Please initial)	Absences Total #	Tardies Total #	Present Grade	List Missing Assignments	Attitude	Work Habits	Comments
1 ____	_____					good needs improvement	good needs improvement	
2 ____	_____					good needs improvement	good needs improvement	
3 ____	_____					good needs improvement	good needs improvement	
4 ____	_____					good needs improvement	good needs improvement	
5 ____	_____					good needs improvement	good needs improvement	
6 ____	_____					good needs improvement	good needs improvement	

parent notified _____

copy to the counselor _____

copy to teacher _____

follow up requested _____

Thanks,

Requested by _____

NON-CONTACT HOURS ASSIGNMENTS

ASSIGNMENT 1

Develop a plan to:

a. Change the location of your special education class to a more accessible and integrated area on the school campus.

OR

b. Change the master schedule of a grade level of your choice or your own schedule so that coordination exists to facilitate integration of your special education students. Be sure to select regular education classes or activities which are age appropriate for your special education students.

Include in your plan:

a. pre-planning strategies
b. time-lines
c. individuals who will be involved
d. implementation

POSSIBLE 30 POINTS

ASSIGNMENT 2

Develop a one year plan to integrate two of your special education students into a regular education class or other regular education activities. (If all of your students are already integrated, develop a plan to increase integration). The goal will be that by the end of the year, the special education students will be integrated with regular education students for at least half of each school day. Remember to include in your plan the elements that have been identified as being crucial to initiating an integration program.

POSSIBLE 70 POINTS

45
TAKEN FROM: Exceptional Children. V. 47, No. 7, April, 1981.

INSTRUCTOR'S MATERIALS

"Advocate" vs. "Professional Employee": A Question of Priorities for Special Educators

GREG H. FRITH

Abstract: A difficult situation arises for special educators when they are asked to serve as active advocates for handicapped children, while simultaneously being employed by a public school system, institution of higher education, or state education agency charged with responsibility for implementing various aspects of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. Potential conflicts in roles are discussed. Numerous examples of "advocacy dilemmas" are presented, along with a variety of pertinent questions.

GREG H. FRITH is *Associate Professor and Chairman, Special Education Department, Jacksonville State University, Alabama*

In recent months the Council for Exceptional Children has undergone the process of adopting formal mission statements. One of these statements addresses the conditions under which professionals work with exceptional students. More specifically, the statement directs the Council to establish and promote: (a) standards of practice; (b) a code of professional ethics; and (c) professional standards for training, certification, and licensure. This mission is particularly important in view of increasing pressures being placed on special educators who serve as advocates for exceptional children, while also maintaining loyalty to professional employers.

Problems relating to advocacy have been addressed in the professional literature. As early as 1974 Priddy described pressures on special educators who defended handicapped children. In addition, Buscaglia and Williams (1979) and Mann (1976) have edited publications in which numerous authors discussed the roles of educators in their advocacy efforts to ensure the implementation of Public Law 94-142, the Education for all Handicapped Children Act of 1975.

Some writers have focused on advocacy issues specific to certain populations. These populations include parents (Hocevar, 1979), vocational educators (Rosenberg & Testolowski, 1980), counselors (Clifford, 1976), and teacher educators (Hamalian & Ludwig, 1976; Turnbull, 1977). Advocacy on behalf of hand

Exceptional Children, Volume 47, Number 7. Copyright © 1981 The Council for Exceptional Children

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

icapped children has not been limited to public education. Vardin and Brody (1979) edited a collection of papers summarizing children's rights in a variety of noneducational arenas.

There is little doubt that advocacy has become an important issue in special education (Danker-Brown, 1979). It is becoming increasingly difficult for professionals in the field to assume the role of child advocate, while simultaneously attempting to support their employing agency, for example the local school system, state education agency, or institution of higher education. The purpose of this article is to focus attention on the problems that special education personnel may face when they assume an advocacy role. The intent is not to diminish the significance of such a role, but rather to clarify an increasingly common and complex dilemma.

The mandates of P.L. 94-142, such as related services, individualized education programs (IEP's), free appropriate public education, and due process, while emphasizing the child's welfare, have forced special educators into a position where they must frequently serve "two masters." The profession will probably experience a difficult transitional period while adjusting to this new role. Understanding the variables involved in these "advocacy dilemmas" should serve to enlighten professionals during the adjustment. For purposes of this article, an "advocacy dilemma" is defined as a conflict that arises when a professional must decide whether to actively defend a child's rights when doing so would contradict the stated or implied directives of the professional's employing agency.

EXAMPLES OF ADVOCACY DILEMMAS

The problem can be better understood if viewed in terms of three actual situations. Names and identities are omitted.

Example 1

A teacher instructs learning disabled students in a small, rural school system. One of the children needed physical therapy, adapted physical education, and speech therapy. The teacher specified these services on her preparatory notes for the child's IEP as she had been taught to do in college and had been reminded to do during a staff development worshop conducted by a consultant from the state education agency. As speech therapy was the only service available because of a shortage of licensed therapists and clinicians, the principal and special education coordinator requested that the teacher simply omit these items from the child's IEP. She was told that there was no need to unnecessarily disturb the concerned parents. The teacher, who did not wish to be labeled as a troublemaker nor to be the cause of an awkward due process hearing, complied with the request. What position would any teacher assume if presented with these options?

Example 2

A rural intermediate school district is composed of approximately 10 local school systems, most with superintendents elected to office. Therefore, public due process hearings are not welcomed. In this intermediate district, the special education coordinator is administratively responsible to the superintendent of the school system which serves as fiscal agent for the collaborative programs. A dilemma occurred when the state director of exceptional student education requested that the special education coordinator assume responsibility for parent training; in essence, informing parents of handicapped children of their legal rights and responsibilities. To whom should the special education coordinator feel most responsible? To the administrator who signs his paychecks? Or to the state education agency who provides direction in implementing federal statues? Is it fair to expect a special educator to make such a choice?

Example 3

A local school system sponsored a staff development workshop for special education teachers and paraprofessionals. As the employed consultant began to discuss specific issues involving the legal liability of paraprofessionals in the classroom, the school superintendent joined the group. He was overheard objecting to the concept of exposing special education paraprofessionals to legal issues that did not concern them. Is it reasonable to expect that the consultant will be invited to return to the system for a second presentation, or to any other school system in the immediate area? It would not be surprising if the special education coordinator who invited this particular consultant felt informal pressure as well.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

DISCUSSION

Situations like the ones described are becoming alarmingly common throughout the special education profession. Due process and mediation hearings are expensive and frequently result in negative publicity for a school system. The substantial costs involved in teaching handicapped children, along with a backlash attitude expressed by many regular educators who are being asked to instruct handicapped children, have served to further compound the advocacy problem. These paradigms have routinely caused regular educators (and some special educators) to steer a compound the advocacy problem. These paradigms have routinely caused regular educators (and some special educators) to steer a compromising course in their administrative decision making. Lack of budgetary support and shortage of certified specialists (particularly for low incidence exceptionalities and in the related service areas) are also cited as scapegoats when professionals would prefer not to openly support the rights of handicapped children.

IMPACT ON SCHOOL SYSTEM PERSONNEL

In addition to the advocacy dilemmas involving special education teachers and coordinators, role conflicts may also exist for other public school personnel such as principals and assessment personnel.

Local Administrators

Advocacy issues may place school administrators in difficult positions, yet they are in an excellent position to defend the rights of handicapped children (Chaffee & Olds, 1979). Principals are particularly vulnerable because they: (a) are frequently expected to be financial managers; (b) are often close allies of the school superintendent; (c) feel acute pressure to respond to the needs of children and parents; (d) rarely have tenure as administrators; and (e) usually serve as buffers or conduits between the superintendent and teachers.

Graduate programs in school administration should include simulated activities involving advocacy dilemmas. Professional organizations for administrators should also address these issues and should provide support for principals who defend the right of children and teachers who function as child advocates. It should be noted that many of the concerns and pressures involving principals are also applicable to coordinators of exceptional student education.

Assessment Personnel

Educational diagnosticians, school psychometrists, school psychologists, and other assessment personnel are routinely requested to make educational recommendations based on their assessment data. These recommendations may include related services, many of which are expensive and include personnel not readily available. Administrators with limited financial resources may place pressure on assessment personnel to limit recommendations on services that are not practical to provide.

Teacher Educators

Advocacy dilemmas extend beyond local school systems to include institutions of higher education. For example, college professors who serve as due process hearing officers may be subjected to covert, and sometimes overt, action by local school systems when the welfare of a certain handicapped child is given priority over the administrative and fiscal convenience of the school system. Faculty members may also elicit controversy by becoming active advocates in situations where comprehensive services are needed and the school system has limited resources. Such situations may be especially sensitive if school administrators view teacher educators as meddling in areas external to traditional faculty roles. Another area of conflict could arise if faculty members comply with the requests of advocacy organizations or parents to conduct independent evaluations, serve as expert witnesses, or render informal opinions.

Teacher educators who become actively involved as child advocates can set excellent examples for their students. However, assuming such positions could conceivably reduce consultancies with local school systems, damage credibility among some regular education administrators, and create pressure from administrators within the institution of higher education. Such a price could be high, indeed, for young nontenured faculty.

Teacher educators need to understand and address advocacy in a direct fashion if young graduates are to be prepared to make appropriate child based decisions. College and uni-

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

versity personnel can improve their awareness of delicate issues relating to advocacy by: (a) listening carefully to graduate students who are currently teachers or administrators; (b) serving as due process hearing officers; (c) serving as consultants to local school systems, advocacy organizations, or parent groups; (d) talking informally to state education agency personnel; (e) speaking to parent groups and listening to their concerns; and (f) interacting informally with teachers while in the schools supervising student teachers or practicum students.

State Education Agency Consultants

Consultants in state education agencies are also susceptible to pressure from advocacy dilemmas when they are forced to make decisions as to what is appropriate for children versus what is feasible for the school system. For example, a local education agency has been serving all behavior disordered children in a separate facility for several years. Every child's IEP, regardless of the handicapping condition's severity, recommends identical placement. The state monitoring team might conclude from this evidence that children are being placed to fit the program, which would constitute a clear violation of the intent of federal law. However, the team is reluctant to address this issue because their administrative superiors have instructed them to "go easy" on separate facilities. If pressed, the administrative superiors pass responsibility on to the U.S. Office of Special Education (which has not assumed a strong position on separate facilities to date).

State education specialists who openly advocate on behalf of specific handicapped children frequently feel informal pressures to halt their efforts. In some instances such personnel have actually been reassigned to new roles in noncontroversial and sometimes nonexistent areas of responsibility.

Advocacy by state education agency personnel has even resulted in the formation of ad hoc committees of local school superintendents charged with recommending ways to streamline administrative practices pertaining to exceptional student education. Their recommendations may frequently tend to minimize individual children's legal rights, supposedly guaranteed by federal statute.

An example of administrative action which may have minimized student rights in one state is in the area of due process hearings. Although each child is afforded the right to a hearing when a conflict occurs, the state education agency has apparently begun to "stack" the three person hearing panel with a minimum of two public school personnel. The majority of earlier hearing panels consisted of two teacher educators and one local school administrator. (Informal feedback indicates that local education agency hearing officers tend to be more sympathetic with a school system's position than hearing officers from institutions of higher education.) Such action is supposedly legal, as federal regulations do not stipulate the kinds of personnel eligible to receive training as hearing officers. This informal policy change by the state education agency occurred after the appointment of an ad hoc committee of local school superintendents. The state superintendent of education appointed this committee after it may have appeared that an excessive number of hearings were being decided in favor of parents.

ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONS

The roles of various organizations in resolving advocacy dilemmas need clarification because of dual pressures that may exist on leadership to defend the rights of membership while concurrently advocating on behalf of children. These potential role conflicts could result in some difficult decisions.

Teacher Unions

Many states have teacher unions committed to actively defending the rights of their members. Collective bargaining agents should consider the need to offer support and protection for members who openly support handicapped children when their employers make requests or exert pressures to the contrary. In states where teacher unions do not exist, professional organizations may need to assume this responsibility.

Professional Organizations

The issue of advocacy dilemmas extends into professional organizations such as The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC). Should CEC support the rights of individual children, as it worked to ensure the passage of P.L. 94-142, or should the organization be more concerned with teachers' legal rights, salaries, paperwork, etc.? The requirements of IEP's and

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

accompanying paperwork could be considered as a case in point. The Political Action Network of CEC could be used to support the value of paperwork as a protective safeguard of the rights of handicapped children (as viewed by many advocates), or it could be used to support the reduction of such paperwork as superfluous to instruction (as viewed by many teachers). Another example might be the Teacher Education Division (TED) of CEC. Should TED use its resources to support the rights of children such as urging the adoption of quality standards for approval of teacher education programs, or should it give a higher priority to actively supporting increases in professional salaries, protection of tenure practices, and perpetuation of academic freedom?

The priorities of the Council of Administrators in Special Education (CASE) are another example worthy of mention. Should this administrative organization support parent training and share information with advocacy organizations, or should it support the administrative and logistical concerns of special education coordinators and their administrative superiors?

Parent Organizations

The role of parent organizations such as the National Association for Retarded Citizens, the Association for Children with Learning Disabilities, the American Epileptic Society, or the Easter Seals Society is much easier to understand. While they may cooperate with professionals to work toward common goals such as the passage of P.L. 94-142, they have a better defined priority—the child. Is it possible that some professional educators need reminding that they, too, should share a similar view?

QUESTIONS FOR REACTION

The questions asked here are not intended to receive simple answers. Rather, it is hoped that they will be used to generate discussion among professionals and to promote an understanding of the complexity of advocacy dilemmas.

1. Should a professional's primary loyalty be to his or her employer, or to the children for whom services are provided?

2. Where should a professional seek support when placed under pressure from superiors because of advocacy on behalf of children? From unions, professional organizations, personal lawyer, advocacy groups, press?

3. To what degree should a third party professional cooperate with an advocacy organization in an investigation of the appropriateness of a child's educational placement? For example, an advocacy organization may informally contact a college professor to seek a professional opinion about a child's placement. The professional works closely with the local education agency that serves the child. To whom should his or her loyalty be given?

4. Should a state education agency's first priority be to work on behalf of school systems or of the children served by the school system? A state consultant is asked to serve as a parents' witness at a due process hearing. The local education agency objects, and the witness refuses to attend. Was the witness justified in refusing, or should he or she have testified on behalf of the child? If the witness was asked not to testify by a superior, and yet wanted to testify, what recourse would he or she have?

5. Should an attorney for the state board of education: (a) support the decisions of hearing officers; (b) assist a local education agency in its efforts during a due process hearing; or (c) remain impartial?

6. Should regular class teachers refer children for assessment when there are no openings in the special education classes? To whom should they address their objections if directed to place a moratorium on referrals?

7. When a legal conflict arises, should a professional organization support nonmembers, e.g., principals, or regular class teachers who are active child advocates?

8. Should a university or state education agency conduct parent training workshops focusing on due process procedural safeguards? What should be the role of professional organizations? Is the obligation to inform parents greater than the need to support job security for members?

9. Should teacher education programs stress the responsibility to defend children's rights or temper such a position by stressing conformity to local education agency policy and procedures?

10. Should assessment personnel make programmatic recommendations that exceed the current financial and personnel capabilities of a local education agency?

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

11. Should a school principal's primary support be for: (a) the child; (b) the teacher who may be taking a precarious position by defending the child; or (c) the superintendent who signs the paycheck and controls his or her professional career? If a principal lacks tenure, to whom should he or she address concerns?

12. How aware are members of local and state boards of education about advocacy dilemmas? What do they expect of employees when conflicts arise? How could their expectations be identified before conflicts occur?

13. How might a professional organization, such as CEC, be an active supporter of members who engage in advocacy issues in support of children? Should the same organization assume roles similar to those of a union? Should the organization assume a position when administrators and teachers are both members and yet take opposite sides on a particular advocacy dilemma?

CONCLUSION

For teachers to be cast in advocacy roles may be uncomfortable. A teacher loved by parents may arouse feelings of disdain and suspicion in certain administrators. Because most teacher education programs are child oriented, recent graduates in special education may not be adequately prepared to deal with the ambivalent feelings they are likely to experience in the classroom. Program focus is usually on instruction, behavior management, evaluation, and philosophy. Rarely are the prerogatives of the school system's administrative and supervisory personnel stressed. New teachers may experience conflict and surprise if they are asked to compromise their values for the sake of the school system. The realities of employment usually mean that the school system will eventually receive priority in the teachers' decision making, but not until after considerable turmoil and disillusionment.

Teachers need to decide early, perhaps during training, whether their initial loyalty will be to children or to their employers if an advocacy dilemma occurs. Teacher educators can facilitate this process by posing theoretical dilemmas and asking students to assume positions. Discussions of this nature should also include possible sources of formal assistance if teachers decide to actively support the rights of children. Such sources could include professional organizations, unions, lawyers, parent groups, advocacy organizations, or the press. Teacher educators should stress the importance of considering child oriented options within the framework of the school system before looking to external sources of assistance.

Administrators in local school systems are not entirely to blame for advocacy dilemmas. They are being forced to implement several federal and state laws, to consider a myriad of litigative precedents, and to regularly combat teacher unions, parents, and the media. When available resources—fiscal and otherwise—are relatively limited, it is easy to understand how the comprehensive services needed by an individual child may occasionally be neglected. Yet when the legal rights of handicappd children are aggressively exercised by parents, these rights tend to receive higher priority than areas of responsibility traditionally important to administrators. Substantial gains, such as building programs, winning football teams, or salary increases, may be overshadowed by relatively minor concerns such as the availability of a speech therapist or a bus with a ramp. In the meantime, a domino effect may create pressure for teachers, and eventually for children.

Professional organizations, teacher unions, and parent groups should be aware of the advocacy dilemmas that may confront individual teachers, college faculty members, state consultants, and other public school personnel. Understanding the nature of such conflicts, as well as the rationale underlying them, should serve to assist these groups in formulating official positions. Strong stances in support of membership as well as children may need to be assumed to retain credibility.

In addition to an organizational perspective, individual educators should periodically review their personal reasons for entering the teaching profession. Was it to teach children? To promote the legal rights of children? To make a living? To contribute to society? All of these? Or did they enter the profession accidentally, without actual direction or purpose? More important than why they entered the field may be the question of current priorities. Do they wish to support children, even when employment may be at stake? Do they intend to support the principal, superintendent, and/or school board, even when they may believe the responsible authorities are wrong? Do they want to get involved at all, regardless of which

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

side of the controversy they are on? The time has come to make some decisions.

REFERENCES

Buscaglia, L. F., & Williams, E. H. *Human advocacy and P.L. 94-142.* Thorofare, NJ: Charles B. Slack, 1979.

Chaffee, J., & Olds, H. R. *Champions of children. Administrators . . .* Arlington, VA: The American Association of School Administrators, 1979.

Clifford, P. The counselor's role in helping others through advocacy. *Journal of the International Association of Pupil Personnel Workers,* 1976, 20, 58–62.

Danker-Brown, P. Advocate-protege: Pairings and activities in three citizen advocacy programs. *Mental Retardation,* 1979, 17, 137–141.

Hamalian, C. S., & Ludwig, A. J. Practicum in normalization and advocacy: A neglected component in teacher training. *Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded,* 1976, 11, 172–175.

Hocevar, S. P. *Staff advocacy and parent advocacy training for preschool and Head Start children with special needs.* Paper presented at the annual international convention of The Council for Exceptional Children, Dallas, April 22–27, 1979.

Mann, P. H. (Ed.) *Shared responsibility for handicapped students: Advocacy and programming.* Coral Gables, FL: Training and Technical Assistance Center at Miami University, 1976.

Priody, D. R. Advocacy: An emerging role for special educators. *Educational Perspectives,* 1974, 13, 27–29.

Rosenberg, H., & Tesolowski, D. G. Preparing professional educators to be advocates for vocationally-oriented special needs students. *Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded,* 1980, 15, 132–138.

Turnbull, A. P. Citizen advocacy in special education training. *Education and Training of the Mentally Retarded,* 1977, 12, 166–169.

Vardin, P. A., & Brody, I. N. (Eds.) *Children's rights: Contemporary perspectives.* New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1979.

Editor's Note

The preceding article presents situations in which professionals who advocate for children find their employment security threatened. The view expressed is that today special education professionals function in a world of compromising situations in which they may have to choose between their jobs and their students.

The Council for Exceptional Children firmly believes that the role of the professional as an employee should not conflict with the professional's advocate role. Rather, these roles should complement each other. In order to effect this working together of roles, however, it is necessary that the professional understands his or her rights and responsibilities and the rights of those served.

An article by Weintraub and McCaffrey (1975) asserted that there can be no passive role possible for the professional who serves exceptional children:

> The professional who works with the vulnerable child must be an advocate for the child thus reducing the vulnerability. Failing to assume responsibility, the professional can only play the role of participant in whatever injustice may befall the child and assume any corresponding liability. (p. 333)

As a leading voice in the field of special education, The Council for Exceptional Children is deeply committed to both professional as well as child advocacy. There is no conflict in these two missions. If what is perceived as good for exceptional children is bad for the professionals who serve them, then the benefit to children is nullified. In the same way, improvements in the professional's position must never be at the expense of an individual child. Professional and child advocacy must go hand in hand. This is not an "either-or" situation.

The Council believes that professionals who work with exceptional children need to be able to advance their skills and need to have the resources and conditions necessary to deliver appropriate special education. This belief was reflected in the original purposes of the orga-

SPECIAL FOCUS: ADVOCACY

At the Heart of the Advocacy Dilemma:

LOUS HESHUSIUS

Abstract: The conflict which sometimes arises between acting simultaneously as a child advocate and as a professional employee is related to the philosophical underpinnings which inspire the current approach to special education. These underpinnings are manifested in a mechanistic view of reality that entered Western thought through Newtonian physics. Criticisms of this world view from various sciences are presented, centering on its narrow and inaccurate representation of reality, and specifically of behavior and learning. A nonmechanistic set of assumptions about the nature of reality and of behavior is juxtaposed as a strong force in contemporary scientific thought. This nonmechanistic or holistic world view is set forth as a better model to guide special education practices for the future.

LOUS HESHUSIUS *is Assistant Professor, Department of Teaching and Department of Special Education, University of Northern Iowa, Cedar Falls.*

In April 1981 *Exceptional Children* published an article, "'Advocate' vs. 'Professional Employee': A Question of Priorities for Special Educators" by Greg Frith. CEC invited comments on that article and The Council's future directions regarding the advocacy issue. The following article and letters are edited responses to that invitation.

■ Special educators who wish to act as child advocates and defend children's rights often experience conflicts with the implied directives of their employing agencies. Frith described this problem in his 1981 article in *Exceptional Children*.

It is true that a serious dilemma can exist when a disparity arises between acting as a child advocate and simultaneously as a professional employee. However, there is more to the problem; at a fundamental level this conflict deals with the ways we conceptualize the child as learner, the teacher as teacher, and both as human beings.

The philosophical underpinnings of our predominant special education approaches and of several Public Law 94–142 (the 1975 Education for All Handicapped Children Act) regulations are at the heart of the child advocate/professional employee debate. The dominant paradigm under which we work with and think about children reflects a set of mechanistic assumptions about behavior, teaching, and learning–and not learning–that underlie the conflict.

Two major views of reality have not only guided the sciences, but have provided cultural world views—ways of thinking, perceiving, and acting. The two world views may best be described by the terms *mechanistic* and *nonmechanistic*, although other descriptions and terms are often used. The chart on page 9 (Heshusius, 1977, p. 13) summarizes major characteristics of both world views.

In comparing the two views, we can see how the mechanistic model has, for the most part, shaped special eduation. The best way to illustrate this may be to make clear how our (often unconscious) conceptualizations shape the

Exceptional Children, Volume 49, Number 1. Copyright © 1982 The Council for Exceptional Children.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

A Mechanistic World View

reality of what we do, or have to do, with our students. Examples from a recent naturalistic, descriptive study show how mechanistic assumptions dictate special education practices on a day-to-day basis. The examples are taken from data gathered from recordings and field notes over a 7-month period of daily interactions between a secondary resource teacher and her students, colleagues, education agency, personnel, administrators, and student teachers; a detailed log of daily tasks and events; and the teacher's personal reactions to them.* One of the recurring themes in these descriptive data is the prescribed rigidity of the teaching-learning process.

Example 1. Teacher (discussing IEP objectives with a colleague): I want self-concept on here, but he (consultant) will say, "How do you measure that?" Perhaps we could say: She will smile 4 out of 5 days when entering the class. . . . Oh, that is ridiculous . . . forget it, we won't put it on at all.

In situations such as Example 1, rules, regulations, objectives, measurements, prediction, and control—external, quantifiable child behaviors—are paramount. The children themselves seem secondary. The teachers are expected to be followers and appliers of rigid rules; that is, they act as measurers, testers, writers of behavioral objectives, bookkeepers, but not "whole" teachers.

Teaching and learning are reduced to the level of rules and instrumentality, the most subordinate level in the hierarchy of ways by which we know. Because of the required quantification and measurement, teaching and learning often do not operate at the levels of what is meaningful to the child and what is worthwhile in the first place. (See Van Manen, 1977, for a discussion of the three levels of knowing: worthwhileness, meaning, and instrumentality.)

Why do we seem compelled to perceive the measured effect, the rules, the techniques, as ends in themselves when, as professionals and human beings, our real concern is with the child? The answer lies in a view of reality that pervades our culture and that we take for granted, as if no other view could exist. A comparison of mechanistic and nonmechanistic world views and an examination of their relevance to special education practices and to several P.L. 94–142 regulations will clarify their impact on the child advocate/professional employee dilemma.

As special educators, we need to be aware that the mechanistic assumptions we accept are too narrow and simplistic, and that they provide inadequate descriptions of behavior. We need to turn to a nonmechanistic set of concepts for guidance in research and teaching. Knowledge of such changes taking place in other fields (e.g., physics, biology, chemistry, astronomy, psychology, educational research) may facilitate comparable changes in special education.

THE MECHANISTIC MODEL

The concepts of classical or Newtonian physics have shaped the mechanistic model prevailing in the social sciences. In this model, reality consists of fixed particles—small, immutable "building blocks" of essentially passive matter. Forces operate on and between these particles

---

* The reader interested in naturalistic, qualitative methodology is referred to a previous work in the area of mental retardation (Heshusius, 1981) and to textbooks on qualitative research: for example, Bogdan and Taylor (1975); Patton (1980); and Schwartz and Jacobs (1979).

in a cause and effect fashion. In this view, the observer or experimenter is seen as a neutral, nonparticipating, objective professional who has no effect on the observed phenomena but who manipulates them in a predetermined manner. Although this model is now seen by physicists as too narrow and limited, it has penetrated and shaped American social sciences.

Valle (1981, p. 424) notes that human phenomena have come to be seen as (a) observable, or perceivable with one or more of the senses; (b) measurable or quantifiable; and (c) verifiable in that more than one observer must be able to agree on their existence and characteristics.

Special educators know that such a view of reality assumes that not only curriculum areas but psychological, emotional, and other aspects of human behavior can be broken down into discrete, observable, and measurable steps. These steps can be arranged sequentially, taught to the child, and measured quantitatively as outcome. This view dictates that the time period necessary for training or teaching can be predicted; that "the best way" (in terms of methods, materials, and teaching strategies) can be determined; and that such planning can cover periods as long as one year.

Example 2. After the teacher, to her distress, had rewritten IEP's as directed by the consultant in terms of numbers, scores, and predicted percentages of correct responses, the principal stopped her in the hall and indicated that the IEP's were acceptable: "No one can challenge them now." The teacher replied, "But they are meaningless!" The principal smiled in response. The teacher's field notes for the day commented: ". . . I am already judged accountable, before I have even taught anything."

In the mechanistic view, the student is seen as a reactive/passive organism, just as matter in Newtonian physics was seen as passive, put into motion only by the force of gravity.

Stimulus control is the force used to produce learning in the student, in the behavioristic theories applied extensively in special education. Von Bertalanffy (1967, 1968) has referred to this view of the individual as the "reactive personality system." Given this view of the student, expected outcomes can be stated specifically. Accountability thus seems real.

Example 3. Portion of a 9th-grader's IEP. Long-term Goals: 1. Mary will increase her spelling vocabulary. She will score 85% on a list of 35 randomly selected words from her accumulated spelling lists. 2. Mary will be able to compose a four-paragraph story or letter: five sentences per paragraph minimum with no more than five grammatical, spelling, or punctuation errors. 3. Mary will be able to apply a systematic approach to sounding out unknown words: (a) visually remove affixes, (b) look for familiar roots and syllables, (c) pronounce unknown syllables, (d) reattach affixes, (e) put all parts together and pronounce the word. She will be able to pronounce 30 randomly selected multisyllabic words.

The words "random" and "unknown" in Example 3 are intended to denote objectivity and neutrality on the part of teacher and student; actually, they negate meaning and context.

The *diagnostic-prescriptive* model which pervades special education is based on mechanistic assumptions. The model has several key tenets:

1. Educationally relevant psychological abilities exist.
2. They can be reliably measured by valid tests.
3. They are causally related to academic skills.
4. They can be taught in isolation through instruction directly linked to the diagnostic information.
5. Their training will remediate the weak abilities, improving the student's academic achievement. (Arter & Jenkins, 1979; Ysseldyke & Salvia, 1974).

These assumptions find their equivalents in the closed-systems assumptions of the mechanistic world view (chart, page 9).

Arter and Jenkins challenge these assumptions and suggest that continued advocacy of the model cannot be justified. However, as these authors note (from survey research), most

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Key Assumptions of Mechanistic and Nonmechanistic World Views*

Mechanistic View	*Nonmechanistic View*
Theory of unorganized complexity: reality is additive. The whole is the sum of the parts. Parts are separate and have their own identity.	Theory of organized complexity: reality is holistic and integrative. The whole is more than and different from the sum of the parts and is not explainable by the parts.
Maximum disorder leads to most probable distribution. Order is brought about through assumptions of linearity, additivity, sequentiality, prediction and control.	Order is inherent within complex interactions and nonlinear relationships, and this order is to be discovered. Purposeful behavior is self-organizing and leads to higher levels of order which are irreducible to lower levels.
Life equals striving for equilibrium, that is, a state of most probable distribution through the assumption of a person as a reactive personality system.	Life equals maintenance of disequilibrium through assumptions of imminent activity which views the person as a knowing, creating, goal-directed and active personality system. Life is never in equilibrium.
The organism is a closed system, isolated from its environment.	The organism is an open system, always exchanging matter with its environment.
Initial condition(s) and one best pathway determine final state through assumptions of unidirectional causality in a closed system. Behavior is determined by linear (stimulus-response) or circular (stimulus-response-feedback) causality.	Final state is independent of initial condition(s) and set pathways through assumptions of active and complex, multivariable interactions of components in an open system (principle of equifinality). Behavior is determined by a dynamic interaction of many variables.
Also referred to as: analytic, component, linear, quantitative, additive, atomistic, reductionistic, or closed-systems model.	Also referred to as: holistic, integrative, organismic, nonreductionistic, qualitative, or open-systems model.

* Based upon von Bertalanffy (1967, 1968); cf. Bohm, (1980); Capra (1973); Piaget (1974); Wheeler (1977).

teachers continue to believe in the model's validity. Most teacher training programs and publishers continue to advocate the approach, which, combined with behavioristic theory, largely constitutes the theoretical base underlying American special education. Because they have been persuaded the model is useful, teachers are less likely to create variations in instructional procedures in order to stimulate improved learning (Arter & Jenkins, 1979, p. 55).

Arter and Jenkins call for a moratorium on the diagnostic-prescriptive model because of lack of empirical support. I contend that the model is not tenable in a theoretical sense because it is grounded in the mechanistic world view. Strict adherence to the model makes it difficult to do what is meaningful to the personal and academic life of children.

That the IEP must be written before the special education teacher works with the child reflects another mechanistic assumption. The teacher becomes the executor of a prescription, developed by a team of specialists and based upon diagnostic information. Objectives may be decided by people who neither know nor teach the child (Hammill, 1980). The teacher may even be referred to as an "educational technician," or "behavioral engineer." Such assumptions forbid what Morine and Vallance

COPY AVAILABLE

(1975) and others have isolated as an important characteristic of good teaching: instantaneous decision making, or flexibility (Rosenshine, 1970). Both student and teacher are seen as mere reactive organisms.

Example 4. A student teacher to the classroom teacher: "I was in a class for the mentally retarded as an aide, and the children were doing the same sort of worksheet all the time, day after day! The teacher told me that she would much rather do nice activities with them, but the skills on the worksheets were on their IEP's."

Certainly teachers must have knowledge of methods and teaching strategies; the danger lies in letting such things acquire a life of their own. Teacher and student need to be able to perceive their activities as meaningful in the context of their academic and personal lives. Example 4 shows how the mechanistic model can prevent one from doing so. Bohm (1980, p. 2), the theoretical physicist, stresses that "the notion that the fragmentations are really separate" has led to destructive results. In special education we have practically made a religion of the parts, as easy-to-implement means, and confused them with the ends.

The mechanistic model has been left behind by physics, the field responsible for its origin. In the social sciences, it has been criticized by Andreski (1972) among others; in psychology by Argyris (1975); in psychiatry by Ajaya (1980); and in educational practice by Combs (1979). Researchers in education and sociology point to the need for qualitative approaches grounded in nonmechanistic assumptions (Schwartz & Jacobs, 1979; Patton, 1980; Rist, 1977).

In special education, several writers have criticized the mechanistic model: Blatt (1977); Chaplin (1979); Hammill (1980); and Mitchell (1980). Hammill, in discussing the future of learning disabilities, elaborates on models and mind sets that affect what we do with children. He points out how difficult it is for a profession to change its dominant view once that view has penetrated all aspects of the establishment, even though the model may be inadequate. (For a classic discussion on this aspect of paradigm change, see Kuhn, 1970).

Several critics of the mechanistic view have attempted to develop a nonmechanistic or holistic view for their specific fields of inquiry and practice. It is difficult to articulate a nonmechanistic set of assumptions precisely because such assumptions are not based upon the linear and sequential notions most easily captured by our language structure. Physicists, too, are struggling with this problem (Capra, 1975). In spite of the difficulty, however, it behooves us to develop a different model if it can improve the conditions under which we do research and work with exceptional students.

NONMECHANISTIC MODEL

In the nonmechanistic or holistic model, reality is acknowledged as a complexity, both more than and different from the sum of its parts. The parts can be understood only in their relationship to the whole.

In special education, our obsession with task analyses, behavioral objectives, and training of isolated skills (often in isolated settings) has led us to believe that discrete procedures will lead the student back to the whole, from which the steps were broken down in the first place. Example 5 illustrates a nonmechanistic attitude and the desire to stay with the "real thing."

Example 5. Rocky proudly showed the teacher some poems he had written. "Can I do this today?" he asked. The teacher noted: "It flashed through me that that was not on his IEP, just as several other things he had wanted to do were not on his IEP (and I had let him do them). But he has progressed by doing what he wants to do. He has been bringing in poems and short stories by Black authors. . . . He is reading! And writing! I heard myself hestitate for a moment and then I said enthusiastically, 'Sure!' "

In physics, it is now recognized that the mere act of observing and measuring produces an unpredictable change in the state of the electron. The absolutely neutral observer or experimenter does not exist. In education we need

to acknowledge that students and teachers are active participators in defining the teaching/learning process at any given moment. They are not merely reactive organisms; nor are they simply participators in an already existing reality. In effect, they change reality as they participate in it. Thus the use and place of teaching strategies, learning principles, methods, and materials cannot be exactly predetermined. Ideally, the teacher and student must work with an open-ended planning approach which continuously matches the direction taken with the ever-changing conditions.

Teachers and students in the nonmechanistic condition are seen as open systems, interacting with the environment in nonlinear, unpredictable, and complex patterns. In an open system, the same state or goal may be reached from different initial conditions and in different and unpredictable ways. The student, then, will transform the teacher's "input" in relation to what is happening "inside" the student at the time, and in relation to his or her exchanges with the environment.

Example 6: Darlene is finally, after about 6 weeks of not wanting to do anything, writing real letters to her father and to her boyfriend. At first she did not want the teacher to read them. The teacher noted later, "I was delighted she was writing after she apparently had refused to write anything substantial for years, according to other teachers, but I did think: 'Wouldn't that look good on an IEP—Darlene will write letters to her boyfriend and she doesn't have to show them to anyone.' "

No one best way exists to teach, to measure, or to test. However, a look at special education practices and many P.L. 94–142 regulations shows that we often do assume the existence of the one best way. It is manifested in IEP's through specification of methods, measurements, and teaching strategies, and in worksheets and workbooks that lock students and teachers into a predetermined pattern. The final outcome is seen as directly related to the one best instructional input based on diagnostic information. The diagnostic-prescriptive teaching model depends on this assumption.

In a nonmechanistic perspective, the a priori question "How are you going to measure that?" will have to be rephrased. Until the rise of Western science, to measure a thing meant to understand its "innermost being," or its essence. In the mechanized world view, measurement became a mechanical, routinized process of comparison with an outside standard only (Bohm, 1980). In a more holistic model, methods of measurement cannot be determined a priori; measurement may take several forms that will occur during the teaching-learning process.

The importance of each unique teacher-child relationship must be established as influential for making decisions about both goals and means. What do the particular teacher and the particular student have to offer each other at the level of what is meaningful and worthwhile?

To paraphrase Mitchel (1980), the recovery of a holistic, nonmechanistic perception of teaching involves not simply better training, but the acceptance by teachers of real ownership in their tasks. Professionals do what needs to be done, rather than simply what they have been told to do. They do not surrrender autonomy and initiative for the sake of mindless routine.

CONCLUSION

What has been regarded as methodological rigor and objectivity in the mechanistic model actually reflects a philosophical bias about the nature of reality and behavior. This bias leads to an oversimplified and inaccurate view of human behavior, of learning, and of not learning. Reality is reduced to triviality.

In the special education model based on mechanistic assumptions, often the teacher cannot act in a professional and intelligent manner, for much is forbidden, much prescribed, and much so rigid that personal initiative is impossible. It may be objected that few teachers would act in an appropriately professional way, given a nonmechanistic model. The response can only be that the present framework strips

even the most able and professional teachers of their holistic qualities. They are being "de-skilled," to use Apple's (1981) terminology, by what von Bertalanffy calls "scientism":

> The devaluation of science to a routine job like that of the bookkeeper or mechanic, and the intrusion of scientific (or rather pseudo scientific) ways of thinking into fields of human experience where they do not belong: that positivistic, technological, behavioristic and commercialistic philosophy which devaluates man. (1967, p. 114)

Again, this is not to deprecate knowledge of certain teaching strategies, methods, and techniques. The problem is simply that as ends in themselves, they are inadequate. As Mitchell (1980) notes, they have promised to achieve by some magic what can be achieved only by imagination, judgment, dedicated attention, and horse sense in daily, sensitive, responsible classroom practice.

Rather than concluding that special education has done it all wrong, it is more accurate to say that special education is trying to do the impossible: to force the innately unpredictable into the predictable, the unmeasurable into the measurable, and wholeness into fragmentation. It attempts to transform teachers and students, by definition creative and meaning-giving, into passive, automatic individuals.

In his keynote address at the 1981 CEC National Convention, Herman Goldberg stated that the need for sensitive teachers who can make a child feel fully accepted is a major concern for the future of special education. I was waiting for someone to ask: "But how would you measure that?" No one did, but while few could argue with Goldberg's concern, the accepted model in special education is still mechanistic. The paradigm that demands that teachers be "behavioral engineers" and "educational technicians" may not foster or even allow for "warm" teachers.

Note that the holistic view is not new. Capra (1975) and Bohm (1980), for example, describe the history of the mechanistic and the holistic views. Both paradigms have centuries behind them and have alternately dominated certain periods in history.

Of course, no world view holds the ultimate truth or reality. Each represents a perspective only, bounded by human and cultural limitations. The time has come to acknowledge that the Newtonian principles by which we operate in special education hold no further promise as ends in themselves. Insistence upon their use as a model for special education will simply exacerbate the child advocate/professional employee dilemma.

Writers such as Kuhn (1970) and Boulding (1981) have pointed out that to change a world view is extremely difficult, but not impossible. The first step is to become aware that the prevailing view is not the only one, and that history records fundamental changes in ways of perceiving reality. Physicists have noted that the Newtonian model of yesterday falls short today; many others branches of science and social science are accepting the nonmechanistic/holistic framework as a powerful force in contemporary thought and life. Special education cannot afford to lag behind.

REFERENCES

Ajaya, S. *A non-reductionistic approach to psychotherapy*. Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Montreal, September 3, 1980.

Andreski, S. *Social sciences as sorcery*. New York: St. Martin's Press, 1972.

Apple, M. W. Social strucure, ideology, and curriculum. In M. Lawn & L. Barton (Eds.), *Rethinking curriculum studies*. New York: John Wiley, 1981.

Argyris, C. Dangers in applying results from experimental social psychology. *American Psychologist*, 1975, *30*(4), 469–485.

Arter, J. A., & Jenkins, J. R. Differential diagnosis—prescriptive teaching: A critical appraisal. *Review of Educational Research*, 1979, *49*(4), 517–555.

von Bertalanffy, L. *Robots, men and minds*. New York: George Braziller, 1967.

von Bertalanffy, L. *General systems theory*. New York: George Braziller, 1968.

Blatt, B. Issues and values. In B. Blatt, D. Biklen, & R. Bogdan (Eds.), *An alternative textbook in special education*. Denver: Love, 1977, 3–29.

Bogdan, R. B., & Taylor, S.A. *Introduction to qualitative research methods*. New York: John Wiley, 1975.

Bohm, D. *Wholeness and the implicate order*. Boston: Portledge and Kegan, 1980.

Boulding, E. Evolutionary visions, sociology, and the human life span. In E. Jantsh (Ed.), *The evolutionary vision*. Boulder CO: Westview, 1981.

Capra, F. *The Tao of physics*. Boulder CO: Shambhala, 1975.

Chaplin, M. T. Down with remediation. *Kappa Delta Pi Record XV*, 1979, February, 81–83, 92.

Combs, A. W. *Myths in education. Beliefs that hinder progress and their alternatives*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1979.

Frith, G. H. "Advocate" vs. "professional employee:" A question of priorities for special educators. *Exceptional Children*, 1981, 47(7), 488–492.

Goldberg, H. R. *The day after tomorrow in special education*. Keynote address, National Convention, Council for Exceptional Children, New York, April 1981.

Hamill, D. D. The field of learning disabilities: A futuristic perspective. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 1980, 3, 2–9.

Heshusius, L. *Competency based teacher education: A discussion of contributions and limitations of theoretical assumptions of models underlying research on teacher competencies*. Paper presented at the Second Annual Harry Lester Smith Conference on Educational Research, Indiana University, 1977.

Heshusius, L. *Meaning in life as experienced by persons labeled retarded in a group home*. Springfield IL: Charles C Thomas, 1981.

Kuhn, T. S. *The structure of scientific revolutions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1970.

van Manen, M. Linking ways of knowing with ways of being practical. *Curriculum Inquiry*, 1977, 6(3), 205–220.

Mitchell, R. M. Is professionalism succumbing to a push-button mentality? *Counterpoint*, 1980, 1(2), p. 14.

Morine, G., & Vallance, E. *A study of teacher and pupil perceptions of classroom interaction. Beginning teacher evaluation study*. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory, 1975.

Patton, M. Q. *Qualitative evaluation methods*. Beverly Hills CA: Sage, 1980.

Piaget, J. Development and learning. In Frank B. Murray (Ed.), *Critical features of Piaget's theory of the development of thought*. New York: MSS. Information Corporation, 1972.

Rist, R. C. Overview on the relations among educational research paradigms: From disdain to detente. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 1977, 8(2), 42–49.

Rosenshine, B. Evaluation of classroom interaction. *Review of Educational Research*, 1970, 40, 279–300.

Schwartz, H., & Jacobs, J. *Qualitative sociology. A method to the madness*. New York: The Free Press, 1979.

Valle, R. S. Relativistic quantum psychology. In R. S. Valle & R. von Eckarteberg (Eds.), *The metaphors of consciousness*. New York: Plenum, 1981.

Wheeler, J. A. Genesis and observership. In R. E. Batts & J. Hintikka (Eds.), *Foundational problems in the special sciences*. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: D. Reidel Comp., 1977.

Ysseldyke, J. E., & Salvia, J. Diagnostic-prescriptive teaching: Two models. *Exceptional Children*, 1974, 41, 17–32.

SPECIAL FOCUS: ADVOCACY

Readers Respond: The Advocacy Dilemma

"A new form of advocacy should be created to allow professionals to defend children's rights within the context of the system's directives. . . ."

DANIEL J. McGREGOR

The child advocate/professional employee question is an extension of the "consumer" versus "provider" concept discussed by Biklen, who argues that an inherent conflict of interest exists when a provider of services attempts to become an active advocate within the system. Biklen defined the role of the advocate as exclusively a consumer function (Biklen, 1974). However, several authors maintain that providers of services in the public school system have a major role in advocacy planning (Hobbs, 1975; Westman & Stiles, 1972).

Specifically, the school nurse (Miller, 1973), school psychologist (Reynolds, 1974), social worker (Mumford, 1975), principal (McGregor, 1977), and regular classroom teacher (Barnes & Knoblock, 1975) have all been identified as school personnel charged with an advocacy function.

In one study, when parents, principals, and special education administrators were asked to identify which provider of services in the school system was an active advocate, only the principal was named (McGregor, 1977). Perhaps assessment personnel, teachers, and supportive staff request the principal to perform as an advocate when they perceive a conflict between advocating for the child and system policies and/or procedures. In other words, they advocate by involving the principal.

The professional must identify the behaviors that an advocate can perform in a specific situation. Frith does not suggest a compromise between the two extreme positions of defending the child's rights and contradicting the system's directives. The challenge for the professional advocate is to create a variety of viable advocacy responses between these extreme positions. A new form of advocacy should be created to allow professionals to defend children's rights within the context of the system's directives and to work for changing any directives that violate the child's right to the free and appropriate education mandated by Public Law 94-142, the 1975 Federal Education for All Handicapped Children Act.

The following behaviors were among those identified as valid and reliable indicators of active advocacy; they imply roles for advocates both inside and outside the system (McGregor, 1978). The professional advocate must decide how to use these behaviors in the context of an advocacy dilemma. The active advocate

1. Coordinates existing service programs to maximize the delivery of services to special needs children and their parents.
2. Uses all available political processes to implement services to special needs children and parents when such services are lacking.
3. Uses the news media to educate and mobilize the general public to act on behalf of special needs children.
4. Shows parents how to seek alternatives to existing programs when existing programs are inadequate.
5. Interprets the laws and defends the legal rights of parents of children upon parental request.
6. Requests the services of the judicial branch of government to enforce the rights of special needs children.

Exceptional Children, Volume 49, Number 1. Copyright © 1982 The Council for Exceptional Children.

7. Monitors programs providing services to special needs children and their parents.

A detailed bibliography on child advocacy is available on request from the author.

REFERENCES

Barnes, E., & Knoblock, P. Openness and advocacy: Teacher attributes and behaviors for mainstreaming children with special needs. In Kreinberg, N., & Chow, S. (Eds.), *Configurations of change*. S. Dakota: Adapt Press, 1975.

Biklen, D. *Let Our Children Go*. Syracuse: Human Policy Press, 1974.

Frith, G. "Advocate" vs. "Professional employee": A question of priorities for special educators. *Exceptional Children*, 1981, 47, 486–492.

Hobbs, N. *The futures of children: Categories, labels and their consequences*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 1975.

McGregor, D. *The advocate for children whose needs require specialized services*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston College, 1977.

McGregor, D. Evaluating your role as a child advocate in special education. *The Special Education Report*, June, 1978, 2–4.

Miller, D. Child advocacy and the school nurse. *School Health Review*, 1973, 5(1), 26–28.

Mumford, N. Training social work students for child advocacy in community mental health. *Journal of Education for Social Work*, 1975, 11(1), 113–120.

Reynolds, J. Various developments in child advocacy as currently practiced throughout the United States. *Journal of Clinical Psychologists*, 1974, 3(1), 13–15.

Westman, J., & Stiles, C. *The child advocacy system: A case report*. Paper presented at the 1972 Annual Meeting of the American Orthopsychiatric Association, Detroit, 1972.

DANIEL J. McGREGOR *is Associate Professor, Special Education Department, Salve Regina-The Newport College, Newport, Rhode Island.*

"It would have been useful to know that there are barriers, such as the advocacy dilemma, to serving children."

BECKY BYRN PETZEL

As a special education teacher and regional consultant I have realized that my own former dilemmas and observations of dilemmas are not unusual.

Dr. Frith's suggestions for teacher preparation institutions are welcomed. Coming out of college, determined and optimistic, I was dumbfounded by the attitudes in the "real world." It would have been useful to know that there are barriers, such as the advocacy dilemma, to serving children.

I think administrative preparation should deal with actual experience in teaching special education students, understanding the relationship of organizational and administrative behavior patterns to power, skills in working within an organization, understanding concepts of leadership style (including self-evaluation), and the importance of making a commitment to an educational philosophy.

Both administrators and special education teachers are often placed in difficult positions. . . . Program decisions in the best interests of the child are often loaded with other difficult ramifications.

In a positive vein, I believe some of the problems we face in special education are part of a growing process. As we grow, we can continue to identify areas of concern and look for possible solutions. It is reassuring that other special educators, such as Dr. Frith, are aware of the advocacy dilemma.

BECKY BYRN PETZEL *is Teacher Trainer, Elsmere Project, Henderson, Minnesota.*

SPECIAL FOCUS: ADVOCACY

"Those of us in universities have an obligation to advise teachers . . . and parents of their rights under state and federal statutory requirements."

PHILIP R. JONES

The advocacy functions described by Dr. Frith may . . . cause conflict in the minds of employees of public and private agencies and organizations. As professional special educators, we cannot stand by and watch inappropriate programs be developed or delivered to handicapped children. We must, however, be cognizant of the organizational structure and employee-employer practices which exist within our given situation.

For example, a special education teacher in a highly unionized state probably has the option of voicing concerns openly and publicly with the support and assistance of the master contract organization, be it affiliated with the NEA or the AFT. On the other hand, I find that teachers in many instances have few protections should they voice concerns which may result in the employing agency having to reassess priorities in terms of providing appropriate programs for handicapped children.

In many states not organized under a labor relations model, special educators can be dismissed if they suggest that the programs provided are inappropriate. Such action could lead to a due process hearing or eventually, to litigation that would find the school district negligent or in noncompliance in provision of appropriate programs.

To help solve the dilemma, we should examine the professional obligation to assure that handicapped children do receive appropriate programs from a dimension other than the advocacy dimension. In *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language* (2nd College Edition, 1976), the word *advocate* is defined as "a person who pleads another's cause, a lawyer; a person who speaks or writes in support of something." *Ombudsman* is defined as a "public official appointed to investigate citizen's complaints against local or national government agencies that may be infringing on the rights of individuals."

My own interpretation of the ombudsman definition would suggest that the ombudsman and advocate perform their roles from two different perspectives. The advocate works from outside the system to influence change within the system. The ombudsman, on the other hand, works from inside the system to effect change within the system. The advocate and the ombudsman may be seeking resolution of the same conflict, but using different techniques. The advocate, for example, may use more active or visible techniques, while the ombudsman would tend to work quietly to seek resolution between the individual, or the individual's parents, and the system. The ombudsman may share information with an advocate, if the problem is not being solved internally. If the professional employee assumes an advocacy role and openly criticizes the agency, retaliation may take place, particularly in states where teachers have little protection from the employing agency.

Those of us in universities have an obligation to advise teachers of how they might proceed, and to advise parents of their rights under state and federal statutory requirements.

A teacher might refer a parent to an individual or organization able to advise them of their rights and assist them in pursuing the desired change; at the same time the teacher might be able to work quietly within the system to try and bring about change by advising the principal or special education supervisor of possible areas of noncompliance.

The high cost of due process hearings and expenses of litigation can be better invested by creating an ombudsman position in special education at the local, regional, or state level. Such a position, while possibly commanding a relatively high salary, could result in an overall saving of public funds. Employment and dismissal decisions about the ombudsman must not reside within the agency he or she serves, or the ombudsman will be subject to the same concerns as the special education teacher.

Dr. Frith's article raises many valid issues and I felt it was necessary to suggest some possible alternatives to resolve the dilemma faced by the professional special educator.

PHILIP R. JONES *is Professor and Coordinator, Administration and Supervision of Special Education, Virginia Tech, Blacksburg, and a past president of CEC.*

"If I had not entered teaching determined to do my best for each child, it would have been easier to have accepted the status quo. . . ."

PAMELA J. McCOUN

As a special education teacher, I feel strongly about the issue of professional advocacy. I recently found myself in a dilemma that tested my ability to uphold my children's rights against numerous obstacles.

If I had not entered teaching determined to do my best for each child, it would have been much easier to have accepted the status quo rather than try to change it.

My case involved noncompliance with P.L. 94-142 and Kentucky State regulations regarding physical facilities, equipment, and conditions. The inappropriate placement of my classroom had many effects on my children, including increased stigmatization, inadequate fulfillment of least restrictive environment needs, and lack of integration of special education programs into the total school program.

After discussions with the school principal failed to remedy the situation, I found it necessary to go to the teachers' union. This process led to a grievance procedure that continued for two months. During this time the school atmosphere, the principal's attitude, and the regular teachers' views seemed very negative; the effectiveness of the special education department deteriorated. The final decision was to provide an appropriate classroom for my children; however, there are still difficulties within the school that stem back to the grievance.

This experience enlightened me regarding the inconsistency between what a school system is supposed to be and do, and what it actually is and does.

It seems that often children themselves are not the most important consideration—sometimes administrative convenience prevails. In many situations such as child placements, education programs, and other school functions, the emphasis may be placed not upon the child, but upon other inappropriate criteria.

PAMELA J. McCOUN *is a Special Educator, Ellen C. Semple Elmentary School, Louisville, Kentucky.*

". . . we had to choose between conducting the program in gross violation of the law . . . or break a contract that we had signed in good faith. We resigned. . . ."

REBECCA L. COLE

Teachers need to be informed of the tremendous pressure, both emotional and professional, that can be placed on them to conform to administrative policy, even when that policy is in blatant defiance of P.L. 94-142. They must think about what their position will be in such a confrontation, the consequences of their position, and their legal rights should they become child advocates or conform to school policy.

In 1979, two other speech-language pathologists and I signed a contract with a school district in central Texas. By mid-September it became evident that grave deficiencies existed. . . . IEP's were blank except for all the required professional signatures, parent signatures were lacking on about half of the IEP's of children already enrolled, Spanish-dominant children were tested in English, screening devices were substituted for diagnostic tests, no speech-language diagnostic tests were available for use, and four invariant techniques were required for all children in the speech program regardless of the child's individual deficit or severity.

After numerous meetings with school officials failed to bring corrective action, it became clear that we had to choose between conducting the program in gross violation of the law and risk liability or break a contract that we had signed in good faith. We resigned. . . .

The school board recommended to the Texas Education Agency that our certificates be suspended for one year. Fourteen months later, after a federal investigation of the school district, much statewide publicity, and costly time spent with attorneys, the state hearing officer ruled not to suspend our certificates.

I have lost over $10,000 in back salary, I have relocated, and my chances of getting a teaching position are lessened. Without hesitation I would follow the same course of action again.

REBECCA L. COLE *is currently a speech-language pathologist in McKinney, Texas.*

TRANSPARENCY #1

ADVOCACY

the act of

pleading the

cause of

another

TRANSPARENCY #2

DIMENSIONS OF ADVOCACY

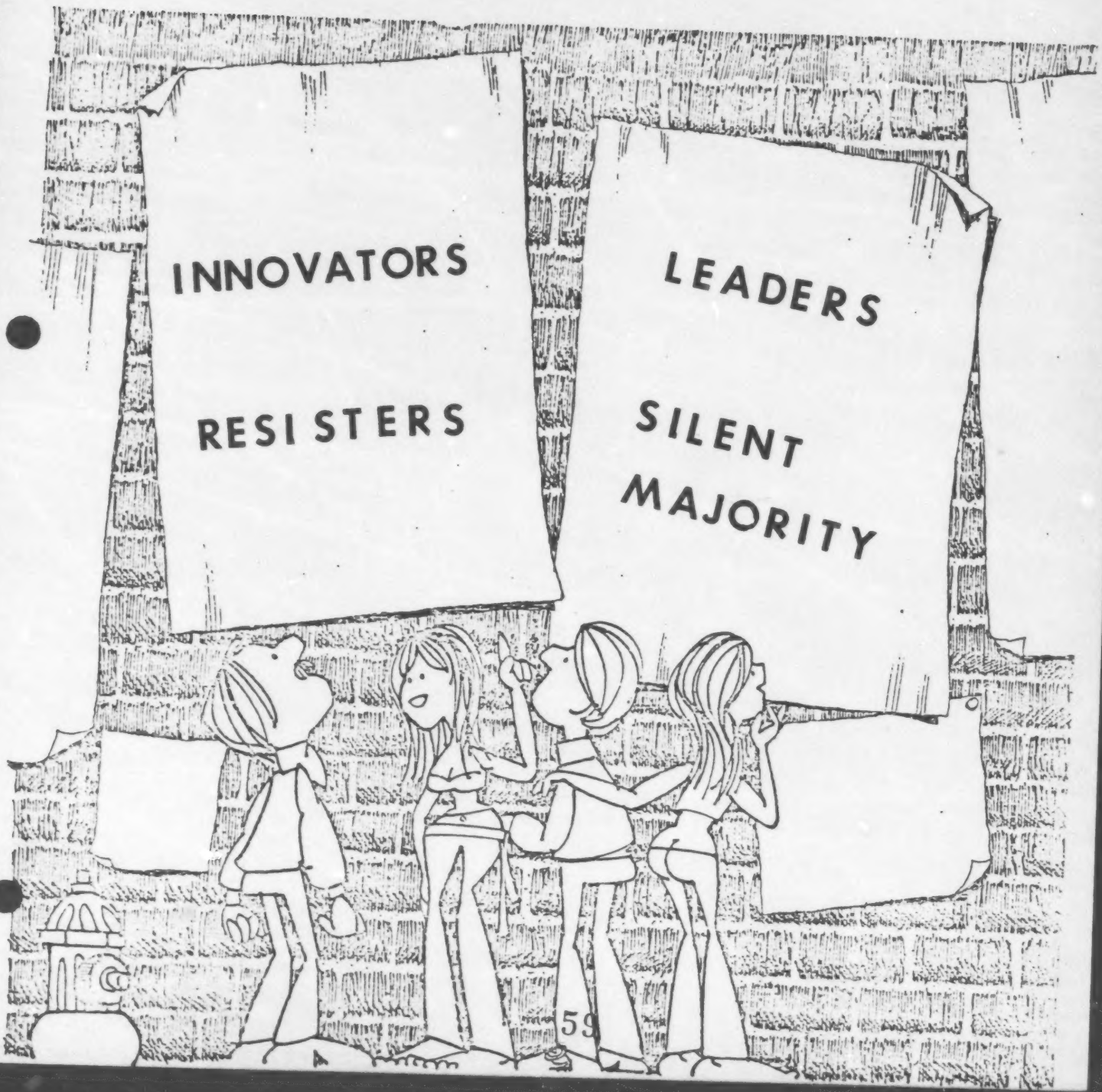
TRANSPARENCY #3

ADVOCACY DILEMMA

A CONFLICT THAT ARISES WHEN A PROFESSIONAL MUST DECIDE WHETHER TO ACTIVELY DEFEND A CHILD'S RIGHTS WHEN DOING SO WOULD CONTRADICT THE STATED OR IMPLIED DIRECTIONS OF THE PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYING AGENCY.

TRANSPARENCY #4

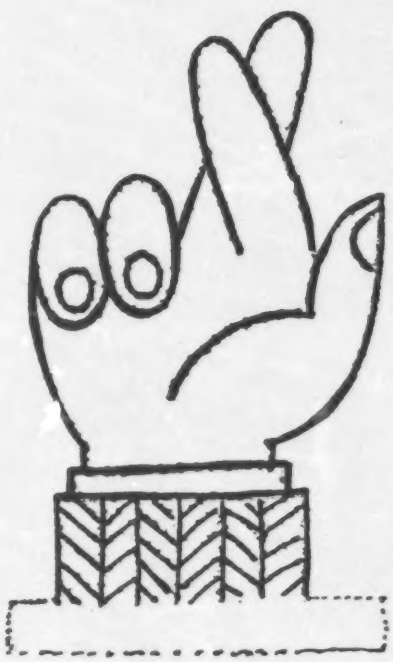
WHO FACTOR



TRANSPARENCY #5

WHAT FACTOR

Commitment



TRANSPARENCY #6

WHEN-WHERE FACTORS

social gatherings

lunch break

faculty meetings

late fall

TRANSPARENCY #7

HOW FACTOR

Strategies

- participation in school volunteer programs
- public relations
- provide information
- lend support
- community contacts

SINCERITY FACTOR

in

actions

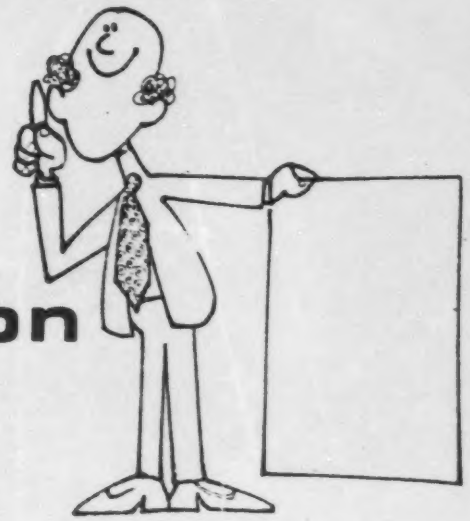
and

words

TRANSPARENCY #9

ADVOCACY SKILLS

- organize information
- human relations
- decision making
- power dimensions
- lobbying
- communication



TRANSPARENCY #10

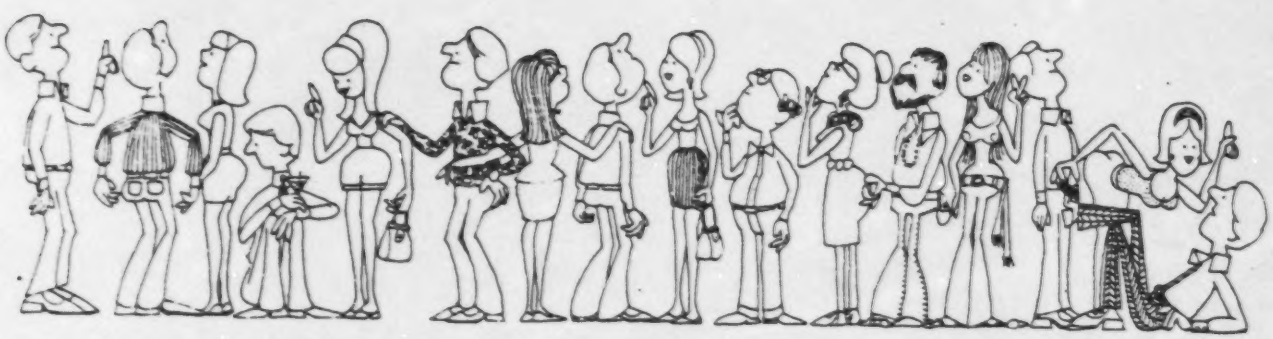
SUPPORT

- administration
- staff
- parents
- children

TRANSPARENCY #11

LOGISTICS

- location of class
- school schedule
- timelines



TRANSPARENCY #12

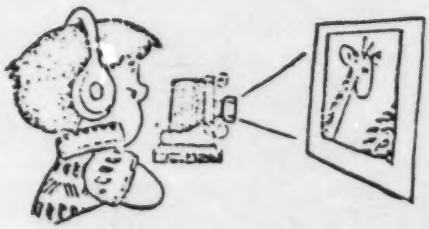
PROGRAM

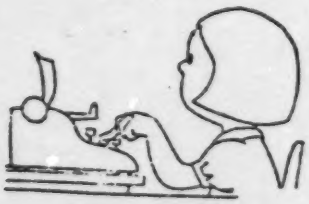
appropriate options

assessing students

involving regular

education students





TRANSPARENCY #13

COMMUNICATION

knowledgeable of

concept of LRE

continuous written

and oral

communication